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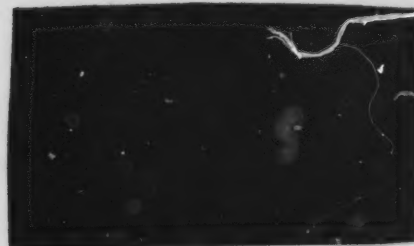
ABSTRACT

These proceedings contain 47 papers presented at a conference focusing on nonformal adult education. Papers deal with 12 adult/continuing education content areas. These content areas and representative paper focuses are adult development (the role of gerontology programs in life transitions, the impact of development on adult learning), aging (life satisfaction and self-directedness, the relevance of Freire's approach to education to older adult education, nonformal education as an empowering process, educational benefits to students in lifecycle transitions, community adult education, neighborhood programming, working class learners, out-of-school education), corrections education, extension education (planning, adult learning as measured by dietary behavior change, effect of student involvement on student attitudes), history of adult education, institutional development (importance of topics in pre-retirement training, a model educational alliance), international education (adult education in West Germany, adult basic education teachers in Kuwait), learning theory (implications for delivery systems, comparison of adult learning theories), literacy (oral subculture membership of illiterate adults, factors influencing General Educational Development test scores), philosophy (tuition assistance, selection of adult education doctoral degree graduate students, impact of research and development, work and participation in vocational training), technology (cable television, audio conferencing), and volunteerism (types of nonformal education, volunteerism as adult education, volunteer characteristics). (YLB)

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Lifelong Learning:
Research Conference Proceedings
February 17-18, 1983

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PREFACE

This publication is a report of the proceedings of the Fifth Annual (1983) Lifelong Learning Research Conference held at the University of Maryland in College Park, Maryland, on February 17 and 18, 1983. The conference focus on non-formal adult education grew out of a concern with problems in this region and the need to facilitate dialogue between researchers and practitioners involved in their resolution. Papers dealt with adult/continuing education concerns such as aging, literacy, teaching, learning, and policy. Other areas include community development, international education, extension education, volunteerism, and research methodology.

The conference was designed to build interagency linkages in the region. Sponsoring agencies include the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service, the University of Maryland's Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, the Conferences and Institutes Division of University College (University of Maryland), American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education, Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education, University of Maryland Center for Community Education Development, Adult and Community Education Branch, Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education, the Maryland Service Corps and the Adult Education Association of Virginia. The steering committee included representatives from the University of the District of Columbia, as well as the University of Maryland, Eastern Tennessee State University, Virginia Commonwealth University, North Carolina State University, Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical University, College of Notre Dame of Maryland, The Pennsylvania State University, City University of New York, Memphis State University, George Mason University, Potomac High School, Maryland, Northern Virginia Community College.

A major goal of the conference was to bridge the gap between theory and practice by providing a mechanism through which researchers and practitioners could share their concerns with each other. The conference had an interdisciplinary focus, bringing together people with different academic backgrounds who share similar concerns with lifelong learning issues.

The papers presented were selected "blind" by a peer committee that reviewed over 120 abstracts. The abstracts published in these proceedings were reproduced directly from copy provided by the authors. The authors' names and addresses are listed at the bottom of the first page of each abstract. If you desire more information, please correspond directly with them.

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As part of the total University, the Cooperative Extension Service takes the University of Maryland to the people of Maryland, wherever they are. In its role as the "off-campus, non-credit, out-of classroom" arm of the University, it extends the classroom to all parts of the State. The Maryland Cooperative Extension Service is known for its programs in agriculture (including care of urban home ground and gardens) home economics, 4-H and youth, community and resource development, and marine science. Off-campus faculty are located in each county and in Baltimore City. Joint support comes from the federal government for both 1862 and 1890 Land Grant institutions; and from the State and all 23 counties and Baltimore City in Maryland. General administration offices of the Maryland Cooperative Extension Service are located at the College Park campus, and the administration of the 1890 program (an integral part of the total MCES effort) is from offices of the University of Maryland Eastern Shore campus at Princess Anne.

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Department of Agricultural and Extension Education

The Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, College Park, is a multidisciplinary department featuring graduate programs in Adult, Continuing and Extension Education. With a graduate faculty membership of 12, the department has specialties and interests in international education, community development, youth leadership and development, environmental education community services and teacher education in agriculture. The Department has traditionally maintained close working relationships with the Federal Extension Service, U. S. Office of Education, the National 4-H Center, the National FFA Center and the Maryland State Department of Education. In addition to the Adult, Continuing and Extension Education Graduate Program, graduate programs in Community Development and Rural Sociology, Environmental Educational and Agricultural Education are offered along with an undergraduate teacher education program in agriculture. For further details write: Department of Agricultural and Extension Education, University of Maryland, Room 0220, Symons Hall, College Park, Maryland 20742.

Maryland Service Corps

The Maryland Service Corps is a state volunteer agency which encourages and develops programs of public service which involve citizens of all ages in meeting the critical human needs of the states' residents. Volunteers are recruited to serve in all phases of state and local government, and in private non-profit agencies. Volunteers are trained in the general field of volunteerism and in their specific service assignments. They serve under the immediate supervision of the host agency in which they are placed and the general supervision of the Service Corps. For further information contact: Mr. James C. Thomson, Jr., Director, Maryland Service Corps, Room 310, 1123 N. Eutaw Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

The Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education

The Maryland Association of Adult, Community, and Continuing Education (MAACCE) is a professional association representing adult educators in the state of Maryland. MAACCE is the result of a merger of MAAE, MAPSE, and MACE in January 1983, and is the Maryland affiliate of AAACE. MAACCE provides a variety of activities and interest areas for adult educators in public schools, colleges and universities, hospitals, correctional institutions, community organizations, government agencies, cooperative extension, and business and industry. An annual conference, several regional workshops, and three different publications are available to members, as well as a directory of consultants and an active legislation information network.

Adult and Community Education Branch Division of Instruction, Maryland State Department of Education

The Adult and Community Education Branch, part of the Division of Instruction, is responsible for the establishment and maintenance of federal and State-funded programs in adult and community education. The mission of the branch is to enhance and expand adult and community education offerings in the State of Maryland. This is accomplished through grant awards to local agencies, inservice and technical assistance, monitoring and evaluation processes, research, and dissemination. Program areas include Adult Basic Education, Adult General Education, GED Instructional programs, External Diploma Program, Evening High School, School-Community Centers Program, the Multi-Service Community Centers and Volunteer Programs. The branch office is located at the Maryland State Department of Education headquarters, 200 W. Baltimore Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21201.

University of Maryland University College Conferences and Institutes Program

Informal short courses and intensive training programs are offered by the Conferences and Institutes Program for participants wishing to take course work on a non-credit basis at the University level. Programs address personal and professional development and advancement in general knowledge. Career oriented courses are awarded Continuing Education Units (CEU's) -- a nationally recognized method of evaluating non-credit professional courses. Courses are offered in College Park, Baltimore, Annapolis and other statewide and national geographic locations.

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) was founded on 11/12/82 at the National Adult Education Conference in San Antonio, Texas, as a result of the consolidation of the Adult Education Association of the USA (AEA) and the National Association for Public Continuing and Adult Education (NAPCAE). These associations served members and the public for over 30 years and this historical consolidation has united over 8,000 members and subscribers.

The purposes of AAACE are to provide leadership in advancing education as a lifelong learning process by: serving as a central forum for a wide variety of adult and continuing education special interest groups; advocating for the field of Adult and Continuing Education; encouraging the use of research, and to assist in the development of Human Resources.

AAACE publishes a monthly magazine, Lifelong Learning, a quarterly research journal, Adult Education, newsletters, The Newsletter of the American Association for Adults and Continuing Education, and numerous books, monographs, position papers, pamphlets, and reports.

AAACE also sponsors and conducts a national conference and regional conferences, seminars, and workshops.

Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education

The Association for Adult and Continuing Education of Metropolitan Washington is a "state" affiliate of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, whose major purpose as stated in its constitution is "to provide leadership in advancing adult education as a lifelong process." Membership gives opportunities to participate in an active and growing organization of adult educators; exchange ideas with colleagues at regular meetings of the association; learn about current trends and innovations in the field; work with education; voice individual and group concerns for the future of adult education through the legislative process; and receive the newsletter of MWAACE. For further information write: Metropolitan Washington Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Washington, D.C. 20036

Adult Education Association of Virginia

The Adult Education Association of Virginia, a vital, dynamic association of thirty years, is a comprehensive organization of individuals whose occupations and interests influence the education and training of adults. Membership (currently in excess of 200) includes educators from public and private schools, colleges, community colleges and universities as well as training directors from business, industry, the military and governmental agencies. The AEAV is committed to working for greater individual growth, a better Virginia and a better nation by encouraging, stimulating, and extending the continuing education of its own members and others throughout the state. The membership shares a determination to improve the quality of adult life in Virginia through continuing education.

Center for Community Education Development

The Center for Community Education Development serves citizens, professional community educators in Maryland and the University of Maryland by providing information, referral and technical assistance, including print and non-print materials, workshops and evaluation services to advance community education/community schools.

The Center for Community Education Development, on the College Park campus, began with the support of the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation in 1976 when it was inaugurated under the sponsorship of the Department of Recreation. The Center housed since 1979, in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction in the College of Education is directed by Dr. Judith P. Ruchkin, and continues to serve as the Mott grantee for the combined Maryland State Department of Education and University Centers for Community Education. To foster community education here and abroad, the Center has engaged in both on, and off-campus, collaborative projects. With a grant from the Department of Education, the Center initially piloted and field tested training materials for advisory council members in Maryland. This originally entitled Council Effectiveness Training (C.E.T.) was expanded with federal support to deliver training for community education, recreation, extension and other human service trainers on the eastern seaboard of the U. S. For two successive years C.E.T. has been offered in Brazil, with materials translated into Portuguese. Current Center activities also include a political socialization project and a State-wide survey of school space utilization.

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GERONTOLOGY PROGRAMS IN THE LIFE TRANSITIONS PROCESS

Edward F. Ansello¹

Abstract

Research on students in a university's gerontology programs found them to be a microcosm of national trends in continuing and higher education: older, female, distant from previous formal education, increasingly likely to be ethnic or racial minority members, and in life transitions. This paper summarizes models of transitions, and efforts undertaken to improve interpersonal and institutional supports for transitional students.

Education often has a special meaning to adults in transition. According to Schlossberg (1981, p.5),

A transition can be said to occur if an event or nonevent results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one's behavior and relationships.

Frequently, further education is the agent of these corresponding changes. There is a growing trend nationally for older students to enter or return to the college or university, or to seek some form of continuing education, during transitions. According to a recent Chronicle of Higher Education article, Watkins (1981) concludes that "life transition" is the reason most adults begin continuing education, and there are at present 60 million enrolled. In the research Watkins found almost 85% of the sample of continuing education students to be studying topics to help them cope with changes in their lives.

In support of this observation, Arbeiter *et al.* (1976) determine from their study of career changes that some 40 million adults in the U. S. anticipated making one particular transition, a job or career change. Aslanian and Brickell (1980) suggest that typical adult transitions range from employment to parenthood to home rental or ownership to relocation. They state that "adulthood is not a time of stagnation or stability, at least in the early and middle years; instead it is a time of change." (1980, p. 33)

In most of these transitions some form of education will be sought. "Moving from one status in life to another requires the learning of new knowledge, new skills, and/or new attitudes or values," say Aslanian and Brickell (1980, p. 34). While conducting their research, Arbeiter *et al.* (1976) also investigated adult interest in learning as a means of making a successful job or career change. They found that about 60 percent of their sample saw learning as necessary for their transitions. Inasmuch as more than three-fourths of the civilian labor force in 1985 will be high school graduates (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980), higher education will increasingly be called upon to aid in adult transitions.

This prospect to a large degree is already being realized. Who are the new wave of higher education students? In the words of the recent Minter-Brown Report which assessed higher education trends from 1969-70 to 1979-80:

There were important shifts in the composition of the student population--relatively more women, more older students...and more minorities--reflecting a major advance in the democratization of higher education. (1982, p. 5)

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These are the very members of society whose recent redefinitions of appropriate social roles, i. e., changes in status, have thrust them into transitions. Characteristically, they constitute the growth areas of higher education student populations. For instance, in a break with "tradition," females now comprise the majority of enrollments in higher education (Dearman and Plisko, 1980).

As noted earlier (Ansello, 1980, 1982), higher education is often not oriented to the needs of these non-traditional students. It is itself in transition. To many of these students, however, gerontology seems to be a friendly haven on the academic topography. Perhaps they see in a program concerned about the aging minority a kindred spirit to their current or historical minority status. Perhaps they identify with the one minority status to which, with luck, everyone will belong. Or perhaps motivated by their own adult transitions to seek education, they anchor themselves in an academic unit concerned with adult mid-life and late-life issues. Regardless, by 1981 we at the University of Maryland Center on Aging were aware that students in our programs--300 in the Graduate Gerontology Certificate Program (GGCP) and 289 in the Senior Center Training Institute (SCTI)--were atypical of the overall university population. And so, we initiated a systematic study of the GGCP students to determine their characteristics.

Before describing the research results, brief synopses of GGCP and SCTI are in order. In 1975 the Center on Aging began a concentration in aging at Master's and Doctoral levels. This program grew and improved its structure in response to university and community demands until it became the Graduate Gerontology Certificate Program (GGCP). In 1981 it became the first approved graduate certificate of any type in the university's history, and to our knowledge, the only graduate certificate program in aging in the country fully sanctioned by both a University President and Board of Regents. This comprehensive program consists of an expansive curriculum of coursework, supervised field experiences, and directed research projects. Certificate work is either incorporated into established departmental Master's and Doctoral graduate degree work or completed in addition to it. A student with an advanced degree may undertake the certificate program alone. The result so far has been gerontology-trained professionals in 19 academic disciplines.

Through cooperation with community practitioners, GGCP developed innovative course curricula and field placements. For instance, there are currently 119 established gerontology internship sites in the Washington, D. C. and Baltimore metropolitan areas. Through cooperation with university faculty, GGCP has become an established instrument for gerontology career preparation within the university. Tenured faculty have become the major part of its teaching, field, and research components. Approximately 150 students have completed the curriculum and another 150 are underway. In September 1981 the program was awarded the Certificate of Merit in the instructional category from the Maryland Association of Higher Education.

In September 1979, the Center took another step toward meeting the manpower needs of gerontological direct service and administrative practitioners by creating the Senior Center Training Institute (SCTI). This Institute provides a comprehensive training experience for senior center staff and related community workers, leading to a certificate in senior center administration. It is the only program in the nation offering such a certificate. SCTI offers coursework in administration, program planning, and gerontology. Students pursue 100 hours of in-class training distributed across these three areas, and complete a 150-hour supervised field placement. The Institute requires a two-summer sequence of six courses, with the field work component during the intervening winter.

While enrollment nationwide at summer gerontological institutes has been declining, enrollment at SCTI has increased significantly. SCTI offered seven courses in 1980, 23 in 1981, and 23 in 1982. In 1981 it was cited as the best innovative credit program in its region by the National University Continuing Education Association.

In mid-1982 the Center on Aging completed its one-year study of the 300 GGCP students, past and current. Certain findings are especially relevant, those dealing with questions of gender, average age, marital status, ethnic/racial status, average number of years

since previous degree at time of application to the GGCP, percentage in transition status (career change, returning women, retirement, and widowhood), and awareness of own aging or aging of others as the reason for entering GGCP. These data are summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRENT AND COMPLETED GGCP STUDENTS
(in percentages except where noted)

	Master		MSW		Doctor		Average	
	Current	Completed	Current	Completed	Current	Completed	Current	Completed
Female	86	91	97	89	78	80	87	84
Average Age	41	50	34	33	44	38	40	43
Separated/Divorced	15	13	5	31	6	-	11	17
Widowed	6	4	-	-	-	-	3	2
Minority	17	4	11	15	18	-	16	7
Average Yrs. Since Previous Degree	11	8	4	8	7	7	9	8
In Transition	61	91	53	69	88	17	64	74
Aging of Self or Others	33	80	37	62	18	33	31	41

As can be seen immediately, these student characteristics are a microcosm of the emerging student populations in higher education, which, in turn, are reflections of the elements of society in transition. Overall we might say that these students are a truer reflection of the larger national trends in society than they are of the college or university population in general. They are, overwhelmingly, in some type of transition. In addition, the majority (51%) have returned to the university for the GGCP certificate alone, not because of a particular academic department or degree. This means that they are not only in transition in the real world, but that they have no departmental affiliation or "home" on the campus. We, therefore, sought to learn what help these students would need to get through transitions. It was obvious that a program nominally on the facts of aging had to reorient itself to accommodate its students' experiences of aging. The degree to which they successfully accomplish these transitions will likely affect their choice of gerontology as a career, their assumptions of aging-related jobs, and (less certainly) the quality of their job performance.

It seemed reasonable to assume at the start, that, in general, people in transition need information, resources and support. Discussing stress in transition, Pearlin (1981) maintains that the mediators of stress are coping skills and social support; regarding the latter, the crucial element is not the extensiveness of social supports, but rather the quality of these networks. Social supports do not diminish the problems of the person in transition, but they do maintain the person's self-concept and indirectly serve as a barrier to depression, according to Pearlin (1981). Weiss (1976), working with widows, maintains that these women in transition need cognitive information about widowhood (frequency, characteristics and their durations, etc.), and a support group of peers. The latter facilitates growth by letting people know that it is all right for them not to know what to do; that there are others "in the same boat."

Finally, Schlossberg (1981) provides an overview of the process of human adaptation to transition. She maintains that three elements are crucial to predicting adaptation: characteristics of the transition (role change, affect, source, timing, onset, duration, degree of stress); characteristics of the pre-transition and post-transition environments (interpersonal supports, institutional supports, and physical setting); and characteristics of the individual (psychosocial competence, sex, age, state of health, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, value orientation, and previous experience with a similar transition).

With these contributions as models, we determined that we understood the characteristics of our students' transitions. Most were experiencing a transition associated with adult mid-life or late-life; hence, they were drawn to a unit (gerontology) nominally about these stages. Further, we realized that we could not do much to alter or improve static characteristics of the individual. So we attempted to intervene to better psychosocial competence and overall health. The mechanism that presented itself was the improvement of their environment in GGCP, especially in degrees of interpersonal and institutional support. We believed that the GGCP and SCTI programs give our transitional students structure, goals, and a means to achieve goals. Now we would also aid in the adaptation process.

As a result of our research and the contributions of these transition models, we proposed to the U. S. Administration on Aging's (AoA) Gerontology Career Preparation Program funding for three specific action steps to meet the career-related needs of these non-traditional, transitional students: a) reforming the GGCP and SCTI to include a "transitions counseling" component. Individual counseling would be offered on skills, self-assessment, values clarification, interests, and goal-setting, as well as career counseling for future careers in gerontology; b) creating a new academic course entitled, "Career Development and Aging," to accompany the field placement or internship; this would enable group processes to occur on the above self- and career-related analyses; c) establishing a "job finding" club for gerontology students who are actively job hunting, which would meet weekly with the career counselor to provide a support group for its participants, generate innovative ways to discover job leads and land interviews, and provide general information helpful to the job hunt.

AoA approved the project. In January 1983 we began the transitions counseling program (to continue through calendar 1983) and started writing the curriculum for the career development course. In order to provide interpersonal and institutional support during students' transitions, we have hired experienced personal and career counselors at one-third time each. They have begun outreach efforts to GGCP and SCTI students by letter and follow-up telephone calls to learn students' personal and career goals, what needs are being met or not met by the programs, how the programs might be improved and so on. The personal counselor employs individual and group counseling methods to share common experiences and to clarify the student's priorities, values, and goals; "Carkhuff exercises" (e.g., reflection, communication, listening skills) for interpersonal skills development; and pre-post testing on goal setting and attainment, and on psychosocial measures such as the individual's locus of control.

The career counselor seeks to learn the student's motivation for entering the program, in order to challenge the person to think about where he or she wants to go, what he or she will do with the gerontological training to be gained. This counselor teaches students to assess their job-related strengths and aspirations, and attempts to direct them to areas where they might realize job satisfaction, that is, to aspects of gerontology (e.g., practice, administration, policy, research) where their characteristics would be most suitable. The career counselor also conducts placement counseling, assesses the appropriateness of internship experiences for individual career choices, and leads the job-finding club.

In addition, "Career Development and Aging," a course to accompany the field experience, will include units on gerontology as an interest or a discipline, job market realities, person-job fit, typical work in various aspects of gerontology and so on.

In sum, these gerontology career preparation programs are, in part, life transition mechanisms for adults. More than likely the experiences of these programs are not unlike those other higher education gerontology programs are, or will be, experiencing. The research results and the initial analyses of the program innovations should find meaningful application in other contexts. Sprouse (1976, 1978) and Sullivan (1981) have documented the tremendous growth of aging-related programs in higher education. In 1976 some 1,275 colleges and universities offered courses and programs related to aging. Despite changes in enrollment figures, and intensifying austerity from campus to federal levels, this number has probably been substantially exceeded. At the end of our experimental year our program results should prove to be generalizable not only to these gerontology programs, but also to a far broader audience within higher education concerned with and attractive to mid-life and later-life adults.

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THE APPLICATION OF DISCREPANCY ANALYSIS TO THE
EVALUATION OF CONTINUING MEDICAL EDUCATION
PROBLEMS, PROGRAMS AND IMPACTS

Robert D. Fox¹

Abstract

Based upon a review and analysis of selected literature, a conceptual model for the application of discrepancy analysis to evaluation for planning, implementing and assessing the impacts of continuing medical education is presented. The model is described in terms of its value as a means for diagnosing errors in the development and implementation of Continuing Medical Education.

The adoption by many states and medical specialty societies of mandatory requirements for continuing medical education (CME) is partly based on the assumption that by participating in CME programs, physicians will perform better in the clinical setting, and patient health status will be significantly affected (Houle, 1980; Sibley *et al.*, 1982). In response to these assumptions, literature in CME has focused on the role of evaluation in the CME enterprise. However, articles dealing with the effect of CME on physician ability in terms of knowledge, attitudes and skills (competencies), physician performance in the clinical setting and health status of patients have shown mixed results (Sibley *et al.*, 1982; Stein, 1981; Caplan *et al.*, 1973). Lloyd (1979) reviewed 47 objective studies of continuing medical education's impacts, only to find that three measured both performance and health status with long-term follow-up, and of these only one showed statistically significant impacts. He urged continuing medical educators to develop a means to "dissect and analyze the entire CME/competence/performance/health status relationship" (p. 276). In discussing the evaluation process, Green (1981) identified theory failure, program failure and measurement failure as potential reasons for the failure of evaluation studies to show significant impacts of continuing education for health professionals. Finally, the diversity of evaluation methodologies available to continuing medical educators in the absence of a consensually held paradigm for CME evaluation has inhibited the process of meta-evaluation as a means for establishing across programs and institutions the actual impact of CME on health care (Griffith, 1981).

The purpose of this paper is to present a conceptual model which may be useful for guiding comprehensive evaluations of CME. The model presents a discrepancy analysis (Provus, 1971), analysis of the distance between "what is" and "what should be", as the fundamental strategy for evaluation in needs assessment, educational design, program implementation and evaluation of impacts. It is suggested that, ideally, evaluation should be applied to questions about patient health status, physician performance, physician competencies and program conduct. The model also describes how explanation and prediction tie together these different types of evaluation. The model is presented as an heuristic device, a way of facilitating the identification and explanation of errors made in the analysis of discrepancies, and in the conduct of CME programs. Finally, the overall perspective on evaluation is discussed in terms of both its implications for the development

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of substantive theories in CME and for understanding the level and extent of accountability of continuing medical educators.

Discrepancy Analysis: The Fundamental Comparison

The evaluation of CME may be viewed as analyses of discrepancies of two types. First, CME evaluation emphasizes the assessment of discrepancies between sets of standards for and actual patient health status, physician performance, physician competencies and program management. Second, discrepancies between conditions in each area before and after the program are compared to make judgments about both the effectiveness of the program and the appropriateness of the explanations of problems identified in planning and implementing a CME program. In order to conduct discrepancy-based evaluation, a series of steps is followed:

- (1) A set of standards which describe what is acceptable in terms of patient health status, physician performance, physician competency and appropriate conduct of the CME program are developed.
- (2) The actual status of patient health, physician performance, physician competency (ability to perform) and program conduct is described.
- (3) Discrepancies between actual status and standards for patient health, physician performance, physician competency and program conduct before and after the program are described.
- (4) Judgments about the importance of discrepancies are made and explanations are offered.

The planners' judgments and explanations of discrepancies link each stage of program planning and evaluation to the others. Evaluation for planning and design is viewed as a process by which explanations and predictions of the relationship among patient health status, physicians' performance, competencies, and educational interventions are made. Impact evaluations provide the bases for judgments about the appropriateness of decisions made in planning and implementing a CME program and the worth of explanations of identified discrepancies.

In analyzing patient health status, discrepancies between actual health status and standards for acceptable health status are described. The descriptions and explanations of these discrepancies are usually evident from medical diagnoses. At this stage of the planning, CME may be indicated by an implication that part of the patient's problem is a function of the physician's performance.

The second phase of the planning evaluation is analysis of discrepancies between actual physician performance, which may be defined as the observable clinical behaviors of physicians, and standards for that performance. If a discrepancy between standards for physician performance and actual performance is evident and is hypothesized to be, in part, a function of inadequate knowledge, skills and/or attitudes of physicians, a third step, evaluation of competencies, is necessary.

Competencies may be viewed as the abilities of physicians in terms of the specific combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to perform. In order to evaluate competencies, one must establish standards for appropriate knowledge, attitudes and skills in view of the performance problem. These are compared to assessments of actual physician knowledge, attitudes and skills. The nature and extent of the resulting discrepancies may have implications for the application of learning theories, educational models, and methodologies in the program. Program planners interpret and explain discrepancies, select a reasonable educational model for changing physician competencies based on these interpretations and explanations, and design a specific program from that model.

The fourth type of evaluation involves the assessment of discrepancies between the program's conduct and the standards implicit in the educational model which guided its design. Discrepancies between standards for program implementation and the actual implementation of the program allow the educators to monitor the program and make judgments about the quality of program conduct.

Evaluations of impacts parallel the planning evaluations except that physician competencies, performance and patient health status are compared both to standards used in planning evaluations and to actual pre-program patient health status, physician performance and physician competencies. These two comparisons yield three types of information: (1) the post-program assessment of discrepancy between standards and actual health status, performance and competence yield information about the needs for additional programs, (2) post-program assessment of amount of change in health status, performance and competencies after the program assessments allow planners to make judgments about the worth of the explanations of overall problems, (3) both assessments yield information which contribute to judgments about the overall effect of the program.

The first type of information may provide guidance about how many and what kinds of future CME activities may be required. The second type of information tests the assumptions that health status is a function of performance which, in turn, is a function of discrepancies in knowledge, attitudes and skills. The third type of information tests the assumption that the educational model and the actual program which is conducted according to that model are appropriate solutions to the problems identified in planning.

The model provides a diagnostic device for locating errors which may be made by continuing medical educators as they develop and implement CME programs. Using the model as a blueprint for conducting evaluation for planning, monitoring and determining the impacts of programs allows planners to identify errors made in the analysis of discrepancies and errors in program design and management.

Inappropriate criteria, inaccurate description of extant conditions and inaccurate measurements of the distance between what is and what should be are potential errors which relate to all other aspects of the program evaluation process. For example, an inaccurate diagnosis of patient health status may cause the rest of the planning evaluations to be based on a false first assumption. An inaccurate analysis of discrepancies in physician performance may lead to misguided investigations of physician competencies and, eventually, large-scale programs directed toward poorly established purposes. Inaccurate assessments of discrepancies in physician competencies can alter learning objectives and educational designs so that programs are misdirected or employ inappropriate educational methods and techniques.

Even though errors may be avoided in the establishment of discrepancies or in the formulation and interpretation of explanations of these discrepancies, errors may occur in the actual conduct of the educational program because: (a) the theory of change or educational model employed in the design of the program is inappropriate for the competency discrepancies, or (b) the program is not conducted in accord with standards implicit in the educational model. Evaluating program implementation requires that CME providers establish standards for implementation of programs in accord with the standards implicit in the appropriate learning theory and educational model. Failure at this stage may be attributed to poor understandings of learning and educational methods rather than poor explanations of health status or performance problems. Errors at this stage are manifest in poor program outcomes in much the same way as errors in establishment of discrepancies and in the formulation and interpretation of explanations of discrepancies.

Other errors which may be discovered using this model for evaluation of CME are errors in the formulation and interpretation of explanations. Within each stage of the model, planners must make judgments about why the discrepancy exists. If discrepancies are apparent in patient health status, program planners must judge whether these discrepancies

are due to physician performance or to other variables associated with ill health. Also, when physician performance is discrepant from performance standards, planners may construct an explanation of this discrepancy based on inadequacies in knowledge, skills or attitudes when, in fact, other, equally plausible factors, such as lack of support services or impairment may be associated with failure to perform in accord with performance standards. Mistakes in explaining problems may be the most common type of mistakes when one considers the many variables operating within the context of practice and the psychology of the learner.

The explanations and predictions made by continuing medical educators in the program planning process may form the rudiments of a body of practical theory for CME. As noted earlier, explanations and predictions of two kinds are made within program planning and implementation. First, continuing medical educators develop practical theories about the nature of the problem. For example, associations between patient health status, physician performance, and physician competencies constitute an overall explanation of health problems addressed by the program. Implicit is the notion that by collecting data on the relationships between these aspects of a problem a significant amount of understanding of the nature and direction of the relationships between patient health status, physician performance and physician competencies can result. Second, continuing medical educators depend heavily upon change theories and educational models for the design of educational intervention which will enhance physician competency. Discrepancy analysis may provide empirical evidence of the relative worth of these causal theories of the effects of education and may facilitate meta-evaluation, the secondary analysis of evaluation reports, testing the worth of interventions across many settings.

Within the model, theory development and testing is accomplished when impact assessments of physician competencies, physician performances and patient health status are compared to pre-program assessments in each of these areas. The extent of discrepancy remaining after a CME program provides information related to both theories of the problem and theories of education. Figure 1 indicates how changes in post-program discrepancies relate to explanations and predictions made by the planner in program development, assuming that the program is successfully conducted.

Figure 1. Impact Assessments and Their Relation to Areas of Theory

	Physician Competencies	Physician Performance	Health Status
Post-program Discrepancy	Educational Theory	Competency Theory	Performance Theory
LOW	Supported	Supported	Supported
HIGH	Educational Theory Not Supported	Competency Theory Not Supported	Performance Theory Not Supported

Implications for the Accountability of Continuing Medical Education

The implications of this model of CME evaluation are twofold. First, the model provides a way of thinking about the role of explanation and prediction and the complexity of variables which act upon patient health status as an ultimate outcome. Second, the model depicts areas of direct accountability and compares them to areas of indirect responsibility of CME. Continuing medical education is one of many sub-systems operating to affect physician performance. In turn, physician performance is one of many factors associated with patient health status. In the universe of health problems, only a small proportion of problems can be causally related to physician performance, and only a portion of problems in physician performance can be causally related to competencies.

Contemporary arguments for mandatory continuing medical education make the gross assumption that many health status problems are a function of poor physician performance which, in turn, is a function of inadequate knowledge, attitudes and skills (Lloyd et al., 1979). Although it is reasonable to assume that some patient problems are a function of this causal relationship, it is unreasonable to hold continuing medical educators accountable for any effect in this relationship beyond the level of physician knowledge, attitudes and skills. The decision and opportunity to translate competencies into performance is outside the influence of CME. It is affected by many factors other than the simple ability to know, feel and do.

Continuing medical educators constitute one of many social systems which exist for the purpose of influencing the quality of patient health status and physician performance. They are charged with responsibility to seek out and address problems in physician competency which are associated with poor performance and ultimately with patient health status. When there is little or no evidence that this relationship exists, CME should not be mandated since, *a priori*, it may not be able to bring about the kind of change needed. The assumption underlying contemporary efforts to institutionalize mandatory continuing medical education seems to ignore the real role continuing medical education may play in physician performance and patient health status. The needs of physicians and the public will be served best if continuing medical educators concentrate their efforts on the modest but significant part they play in influencing the quality of health care.

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THE IMPACT OF DEVELOPMENT ON ADULT LEARNING:
A REVIEW OF RESEARCH

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Abstract.

Major findings related to adult development in learning, memory and cognition are reviewed. The roles of noncognitive variables such as pacing, interference, and anxiety on learning are examined. Cognitive strategies used by younger and older adults are described and the evidence that adults can learn more effective strategies is presented. Research on intellectual decline with aging is reviewed, along with strategies which may reverse any decline that exists.

It is a commonly held belief that one's thinking capacities decline with age. Clearly, exposure to adults capable of learning reveals that sayings such as "You can't teach an old dog new tricks" or "The older you get, the less you remember" are unfair, inaccurate stereotypes. Nevertheless, it behooves the educator of adults to be aware of maturational effects on cognitive processes, and the extent to which environmental factors interact with development to hinder or enhance learning throughout the adult years.

Cognition is a term for thinking and understanding, or for "the active internal structuring and restructuring of situations, problems and concepts that the individual performs" (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979, p. 15). Memory, learning and intelligence are all included in an adult's cognitive processes; major research findings in each of these areas will be reviewed below.

LEARNING AND MEMORY

There are three major approaches to the study of adult learning and memory (Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981): (1) associative, (2) information processing and (3) contextual. Associative approaches assume that learning occurs through the formation of stimulus-response bonds, while forgetting is a weakening of these bonds. Procedures for testing this theory of learning have included paired-associates and serial learning tasks, both of which involve exposure to and remembering lists of words or nonsense syllables.

Do older adults perform these verbal learning tasks more slowly than younger ones, as popular culture would have us believe? It has been found that young adults do perform better on these tasks than older ones, and that this age difference increases as task pacing increases (Arenberg and Robertson-Tchabo, 1977). However, the performance of older adults improved when they paced themselves, rather than being paced by the experimenters. Older learners did slow down, and the extra time they took was in carefully reading over the test, rather than in study time (Canestrari, 1963).

What are the effects of practice on learning in adulthood? Transfer refers to the improvement of performance in one task due to generalization of learning from another task. Interference occurs when learning from one task contradicts what needs to be learned in a second task. Since the older the adult, the more practice he or she should have had in a variety of tasks, both of these factors should operate more strongly in older learners (Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981). A study which compared young and elderly adults' performance

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on remembering semantically similar word pairs such as ocean-water (in which transfer effects would be maximized) and on dissimilar word pairs such as book-hair (in which interference effects would be maximized) showed no age differences in performance, as expected, on the former group of word pairs, but dramatic age differences favoring the young adults with the latter group (Botwinik and Storandt, 1974). These results indicate that the long-established learning of older adults may interfere with their learning of new, contradictory information.

Studies of memory generally investigate two major processes: (1) acquisition--the process of elaborating, encoding, organizing and interpreting information for entry into memory, and (2) retrieval--the ability to recall or recognize items previously acquired. The associative approach views the acquisition process as consisting mainly of mediation, i.e. the "formation of a covert response which forms a link between stimulus and response" (Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981, p. 139). Studies based on this perspective have found that older adults do not use mediational strategies as much as younger adults, although they can be trained to do so. Even with training, they take longer to develop these (Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981). Interpretations based on the associative model of learning tend to explain this age difference as due to central nervous system degeneration weakening associative links and interfering with the formation of new ones (Witte, 1975).

The information-processing approach views acquisition and retrieval as active processes, within the learner's control, and is less likely to lead to the pessimistic view that decline with age is biological and irreversible. This approach postulates two storage structures in memory (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979): (1) short term memory, used for temporary retention, and (2) long-term memory, used for long-term storage. Information can be kept in short-term memory by rehearsal, but before long it is lost by displacement. Storage in long-term memory requires the acquisition processes described above, specifically, the creation of categories, such as "words beginning with 'c'" or "animals" to facilitate retention and retrieval.

Few age differences have been found in short-term memory processes (Craik, 1977). Those that have been found in long-term memory processes seem to be related to problems at the acquisition, rather than the retrieval, stage of the process (Craik, 1977; Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981). Older adults have generally been less inclined to develop and use the elaborate and meaningful systems of encoding and categorizing material that are central to acquisition. Eysenck (1975) found that when they did use a system, it was likely to focus on the superficial aspects of the material (e.g. counting the number of letters in each word, grouping words that rhymed or started with the same letter) rather than deeper levels (grouping words with shared meaning, forming images of words). The latter strategies were more helpful in learning for those who used them. When adults are given cues to encourage them to use deep-level processing in learning, age differences have been eliminated (Smith, 1977).

The contextual approach to learning postulates that remembering will occur to the extent that new material is actively related to what the adult already knows (Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981). One would assume that if this view were valid, then adults would learn and retain material to the extent that it was meaningful to them. Walsh and Baldwin (1977) found that, on a sentence-recognition task, adults recognized sentences that had the same meaning as the ones they had previously learned, and that this recognition was independent of the actual wording of the sentence. This research supports the view that the meaningfulness of the material is crucial.

INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence, or an adult's ability to acquire competencies and solve problems, has been studied as a function of age. Horn and Cattell (1966) proposed that there are two primary dimensions of intelligence: (1) fluid intelligence--that aspect of intelligence which can be directed to any problem-solving situation, a pure reflection of neurological

processes, and (2) crystallized intelligence--the learned ability to achieve solutions to problems, through the use of skills, aids, and information gained through education and experience. Theoretically, fluid intelligence should reach a plateau when neurological maturation reaches its peak, and then decline as a combination of illness, injury, and deterioration beset the nervous system. Crystallized intelligence should continue to increase with age, as experience and education continue to accumulate.

How does intelligence relate to age? Cross-sectional studies, i.e. those in which individuals from two or more age groups are tested at the same time, show decline beginning in the 30's and increasing at a rapid rate by the 50's. Longitudinal studies, which test the same individuals at two or more different times (and therefore different ages) show a later decline with age. Both types of studies have been criticized on a number of grounds (Horn and Donaldson, 1976; Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1979). First, fluid and crystallized intelligence have been averaged out in these studies, since they have not been measured separately. When fluid intelligence predominates, one would expect a decline; when crystallized intelligence predominates, no change or improvement should be observed (Horn and Donaldson, 1976). Second, cross-sectional studies confound age with cohort effects, i.e. when one compares people at different ages at the same time, each age group also represents a different cohort, or group of people born the same year. Cohorts are known to differ in crucial ways, e.g. educational levels, types of experiences shared, etc. Because of these cohort differences, apparent age differences will be exaggerated by cross-sectional studies. Third, longitudinal studies are confounded by selective drop-out rates. Generally, those who do not participate in later phases of a study are those who did more poorly on the initial testing. This tends to minimize apparent age-related change because later samples will be brighter than earlier ones.

Some of these problems have been addressed in sequential studies (Schaie, 1974), which involve (1) the replication of cross-sectional studies over time and (2) simultaneous longitudinal studies on some cohorts over two or more ages. Schaie and his associates, in a series of studies (Schaie, et al. 1973; Schaie and Labouvie-Vief, 1974) reported the results of a 14-year sequential study. At each testing date (1956, 1963, 1960) persons never tested before were tested on the Primary Mental Abilities (PMA) test. In addition, persons from previous testings were retested. New samples and repeat samples were drawn from the same populations and cohorts. This design allowed for separate assessment of the effects of age vs cohort on intellectual development, which had been impossible with simple cross-sectional and longitudinal designs.

In the first set of analyses, the same persons tested over three occasions could be examined, as well as different persons who had participated in the second and third testings (Schaie, et al. 1973). These analyses showed the pattern of change was different for each cohort--i.e. on a given ability, one cohort declined, another remained the same and a third improved! The most dramatic cohort differences could be seen at age 53, at which age there were significant differences in overall intelligence scores between those born in 1903, 1910 and 1917. These results, which indicate no major, consistent decline until age 67, demonstrate how simple cross-sectional results can overestimate the magnitude of age-related decline. In an analysis in which the same individuals were compared across times of testing (Schaie and Labouvie-Vief, 1974), these comparisons also show how cross-sectional results show decline as earlier and more dramatic than were the longitudinal changes.

Schaie has interpreted these results as indicating that one's year of birth may have as powerful an effect on intellectual development as age (Schaie, 1974). Since cohort effects are all historical--e.g. different educational levels, this interpretation minimizes the role of neurological degeneration in intellectual development, and emphasizes environmental effects. These conclusions have been challenged (Horn and Donaldson, 1976; 1977) on the premise that age and cohort are not independent of one another under any circumstances and therefore their separate effects cannot be truly estimated. Horn and Donaldson also maintain that analyses with the separate components of the PMA test show that those that represent fluid intelligence do decline with age more than those that

represent crystallized intelligence, and that although fluid intelligence may decline later than was originally thought, it does show age-related decline.

Conclusions that can be drawn are (1) the fluid-crystallized intelligence distinction has value for increasing understanding of adult intellectual development, (2) that declines do occur much later than has been thought for most people and, more importantly (3) that maturation does interact with environmental variables and therefore intellectual functioning is not independent of experience. The latter conclusion supports Baltes and Schaie's (1976) notion of the plasticity of adult cognitive functioning, important because it implies that intellectual change in adulthood can be modified.

IMPLICATIONS

How might adult educators best take advantage of the plasticity of adult intelligence and maximally facilitate adults' efforts to learn? First, educators should be aware of noncognitive factors which may differentially affect the learning of older adults. There is some evidence that cautiousness in responding may partially account for poor performance of older adults relative to younger learners (cf. Hultsch and Deutsch, 1981). Educators can prevent detrimental performance effects on older learners by allowing self-paced learning whenever possible, particularly, as Canestrari's (1963) research demonstrated, during testing. Research also indicates that older adults will report more anxiety and demonstrate higher levels of physiological arousal than younger learners (Elias and Elias, 1977). Less anxious adults of any age perform better, and adult educators should be aware that supportive instructions designed to reduce anxiety help older learners more than younger ones (Elias and Elias, 1977).

The meaningfulness and relevance of the material may all affect how well adults learn (Whitbourne and Weinstock, 1981); adults will remember the semantic content of new material better than the structural content (Walsh and Baldwin, 1977). Care should be taken to minimize interference effects, i.e. new skills that require closely related but different techniques for their accomplishment should not be taught close together in time (Craik, 1977). Finally, those who teach adults should take into account the fact that older learners have been shown to be less likely than younger learners to spontaneously use sophisticated acquisition strategies to aid their learning. However, these strategies have been shown to be rapidly and easily introduced by training methods such as modeling and cognitive-strategy teaching (Denny and Denny, 1974) and by verbal feedback (Hornblum and Overton, 1967). Most importantly, older adults' tendency to use structural rather than semantic categories to aid their learning appears to be a performance deficit, rather than a neurologically-based lack of competence, and training can at least partially, if not totally, result in adults using these most effective strategies (Eysenck, 1974; Smith, 1977; Plemons, et al. 1978).

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND
SELF-DIRECTEDNESS AMONG OLDER ADULTS

Ralph G. Brockett¹

Abstract

Perceptions of self-directedness and life satisfaction were explored among a sample of older adults. A significant relationship was found between the two variables. Additional examination of the data reveal potential limitations in the measurement of self-directed learning readiness among persons of low educational attainment.

Since the early 1970's, self-directed learning has emerged as a primary focus of adult education research. Studies on the learning projects undertaken by adults have indicated that nearly all adults engage in some form of learning activity during the course of a year, most of which is planned, conducted, and evaluated primarily by the individual learner (e.g., Tough, 1979). More recent research has identified relationships between self-directedness in learning and variables such as creativity (Torrance and Mourad, 1978) and self-concept (Sabbaghian, 1979). This body of research has important implications for theory and practice in adult learning, especially with segments of the adult population whose participation in continuing education has traditionally been low.

Older adults comprise one group whose potential as learners has often gone unrealized. Research on older adult participation in continuing education has indicated that about 5% of all persons age 55 or older took part in a formal adult education program in the course of a given year (e.g., National Center for Education Statistics, 1980). However, when the definition of participation is expanded to include those learning activities that are self-directed older adults can be seen to be much more actively involved in learning than the above study indicates. Hiemstra (1975), for instance, found that 83% of a sample of persons 55 or older had participated in at least one learning project during the previous year. This finding accentuates the potential of self-directed learning as a strategy for promoting learning participation among persons in their later years.

A frequently identified purpose of adult education relates to improving quality of life. Lindemann (1961) stated that the purpose of adult education "is to put meaning into the whole of life" (p.5). Bergevin (1967) identified a major purpose of adult education as helping adults "achieve a degree of happiness and meaning in life" (p. 30). In the gerontological literature, quality of life has been addressed most frequently through the concept of life satisfaction. According to George (1979) life satisfaction is "essentially a cognitive assessment of one's progress toward desired goals" (p.210). The literature on subjective well-being in later life has been reviewed by Larson (1978) and illustrates the wide range of factors - such as perceived health and financial status - that have been found to be related to life satisfaction. How might a tendency toward self-directedness in learning relate to a higher perceived quality of life in older persons?

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between older adults' perceptions of self-directed learning readiness and the degree of satisfaction they ascribe

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to their lives. If such a link can be demonstrated, it might be possible to identify new strategies through which learning could contribute to the meaning of life for many persons in their later years.

METHODOLOGY

Sixty-four persons from two residential settings in Syracuse, New York, all of whom were at least 60 years of age, participated in the study. The mean age of the sample was 78.4 years, 76.6% were female, 70.3% were widowed, and participants reported a mean of 10.43 years of formal schooling. Each subject was asked to complete two instruments, the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (SDLRS) and the Salamon-Conte Life Satisfaction in the Elderly Scale (SCLSES).

The SDLRS (Guglielmino, 1977) is a 58-item Likert scale, developed to determine the extent to which individuals perceive themselves to possess skills and attitudes frequently associated with self-directed learning. The scale includes a total score for self-directedness as well as scores for eight factors such as the following: love of learning; self-concept as an effective, independent learner; initiative in learning; and self-understanding. Reliability, as well as internal and predictive validity of the scale have been demonstrated to be high (Sabbaghian, 1979; Hassan, 1981).

The SCLSES (Salamon and Conte, 1981) is a 40-item self-report inventory focusing upon eight aspects of daily living related to perceived life satisfaction. Like the SDLRS, the SCLSES includes scores for eight factors that comprise the overall variable. Salamon and Conte reported a reliability coefficient of .93 for the scale. This figure is considerably higher than those reported for earlier life satisfaction scales.

After obtaining permission to collect data at two residential settings, individuals were selected at random to be contacted about their willingness to participate in the study. Upon agreeing to participate, each subject was given the option of having the instruments left with them to be completed at their convenience or having the questionnaires read and responses recorded by the researcher. This option made it possible to obtain data from subjects who because of poor vision, arthritis, or inadequate reading skills, would not have been able to take part in the study.

It was hypothesized that there would be a statistically significant relationship between subjects' perceptions of self-directed readiness and the extent to which they believe themselves to be satisfied with their lives. Further, it was hypothesized that self-directed readiness would be related to each of the eight factors of life satisfaction mentioned previously. Here, it is important to stress that the hypothesized relationships were correlational but not causal. In other words, while a significant relationship was predicted between self-directedness and life satisfaction, it would not be possible, from this analysis, to determine whether a change in one of the variables actually caused a change in the other.

FINDINGS

In order to test the main hypothesis, a Pearson correlation was obtained between total scores on the SDLRS and the SCLSES. A correlation coefficient of .24 ($p < .05$) was found, indicating that a relationship exists between self-directed learning readiness and life satisfaction.

To gain a greater understanding of the life satisfaction-related factors that appear to be most closely associated with self-directedness, further correlations were obtained between total SDLRS score and scores on each of the eight SCLSES factors. Significant correlations ($p < .05$) were found between self directed readiness and the following SCLSES factors: taking pleasure in daily activities, regarding life as meaningful, positive mood tone, positive self-concept, and perceived health. The other three factors - including financial security - were not significantly related to self-directedness.

With regard to age and education, it was found that while age was not related to either of the main variables, previous education was significantly correlated with both self-directed learning readiness ($r=.29$; $p \leq .01$) and life satisfaction ($r=.44$; $p \leq .001$). Here, it can be seen that those individuals who scored higher on the two measures tended to be those who completed more years of formal schooling than those who scored lower.

Finally, a comparison was made between subjects who completed the two instruments on their own in writing and those who chose to have the instruments administered orally. No significant differences were found between oral and written administration formats on either instrument, indicating that method of administration does not appear to have influenced subjects' responses on either measure.

DISCUSSION

From the findings presented above, several general trends can be identified. First, a relationship appears to exist between perceived life satisfaction and the extent to which one sees oneself to possess skills and attitudes needed in self-directed learning. A significant positive correlation was found between the two variables, suggesting that one who is high in life satisfaction is likely to also be high in self-directedness while a low level of one variable seems to be related to a low score on the other variable.

Second, age, per se, is not significantly related to either of the major variables. With regard to self-directed readiness, this finding is consistent with that of Hassan (1981) who did not find major differences between under 55 and 55+ age groups. This finding suggests that growing older, in and of itself, neither limits nor enhances one's potential as a self-directed learner.

Third, previous education seems to be a key link between self-directedness and life satisfaction. Those who completed fewer years of schooling tended to be lower in both variables than those whose educational attainment was higher. Based on the strength of this relationship, one might speculate that a causal relationship could be confirmed in future research.

Fourth, relationships between self-directedness and two oft-cited barriers to learning participation were considered. Here, health was found to be correlated with perceptions of self-directedness. This finding supports the view of health as a potential barrier to learning. On the other hand, financial security, another potential barrier, does not bear a significant relationship to self-directed readiness. This suggests the possibility that perceived financial constraints need not serve as an obstacle to one who is highly self-directed as a learner.

There are two interrelated factors that must be considered as potential limitations of the study. The relatively small sample size ($N=64$) must be acknowledged when attempting to generalize findings to a larger population. While 96 individuals initially agreed to participate in the study, usable data were obtained from only 64 subjects. This large percentage of unusable data, combined with difficulties encountered by the investigator throughout the data collection process, prompted the need to raise questions about the appropriateness of the instruments.

Early in the data collection process, it became apparent that while few individuals had difficulty completing the life satisfaction measure, the SDLRS presented a different picture. Initially, it was speculated that the age of the subjects may have been a contributing factor to these problems. However, a previous study employing the SDLRS, where 37% of the sample were at least 60 years old, revealed no significant age differences (Hassan, 1981). Further examination of Hassan's sample did, however, indicate that all subjects had attained an educational level of at least high school graduate. Similarly, nearly all other studies involving the SDLRS were comprised of subjects with a college background. To take a closer look at SDLRS data from the present investigation, an item analysis of the instrument was employed.

The item analysis involved obtaining item-to-total correlations for each of the 58 SDLRS items, where the mean score reported by subjects for each item was correlated with the overall mean SDLRS score. It was found that 12 of the 58 SDLRS items, or 21% of the scale, did not significantly correlate with the total instrument.

In examining the items that did not correlate with the total SDLRS score, two trends were observed. The first trend centers around items that were written to be scored in reverse. While most items were written so that a response of "1" on a Likert scale indicated low self-directedness and "5" was associated with high self-directedness, 17 of the 58 items were written to be scored in the opposite manner. Of these nine items were among those that did not correlate significantly with the total SDLRS.

The second theme to emerge from the item analysis centered around items that address issues related to schooling and/or learning acquired through books and study skills. Five SDLRS items relate entirely or in part to this emphasis; three of these items were not found to be significantly correlated with total SDLRS score. Comments from many subjects who completed the scale or initially agreed to participate in the study but later declined reflected a concern about the irrelevance of this school orientation toward current life situation.

This finding, when considered in conjunction with the educational attainment of subjects in the study, raises a fundamental question about the meaning of self-directed learning. Self-directed readiness, as defined by the SDLRS, is highly oriented toward learning through books and schooling. Perhaps this is where the present findings depart from the majority of previous SDLRS research, since most earlier studies have involved samples comprised of college students and adults with at least a high school diploma. For these groups, the SDLRS has been demonstrated to be an appropriate instrument. However, one must question the universal appropriateness of the scale, especially with adults who have spent little or no time in school.

While literature on participation in continuing education clearly indicates that "education begets education", such a strong emphasis on books and schooling can minimize the impact of learning situations where books play much less of a role. For instance, auto mechanics, musicians, and painters are likely to learn more from actual experience rather than by reading about their speciality. By using a definition of self-directed learning that is as school or book-oriented as the SDLRS, and expecting it to be relevant to all adults, there is a risk of excluding individuals from many walks of life, such as those mentioned above, who have excelled at taking charge of their learning, but have generally done so in non-school settings, with primary emphasis on resources other than books.

CONCLUSION

Self-directed learning readiness was found to be related to life satisfaction. It is suggested that as both variables share an emphasis on independence and self-understanding, those professionals who work with older adults might look to promoting involvement in self-directed learning activity among older persons as a strategy for enhancing quality of life in the later years.

With regard to concerns raised about the measurement of self-directed learning, it is suggested that while the SDLRS has been demonstrated to be a valuable instrument when used with individuals of high educational attainment, the scale may be inappropriate when used with persons of low educational attainment. The scale has made a valuable contribution to a greater understanding of self-directed learning in that it has attempted to operationalize the concept, thus making it possible to empirically study self-directedness in relation to other personological variables. At the same time, it is important to recognize that by the nature of its definition, self-directed learning readiness as conceptualized by the SDLRS is probably not a relevant approach to studying self-directedness in some segments of the adult population. To overcome this potential limitation, it is recommended that a modified version of the SDLRS be developed that eliminates some of the concerns identified in this study or that alternate approaches be developed.

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ATTITUDES OF SENIOR HIGH STUDENTS TOWARD OLDER
PERSONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT AND YOUTH EDUCATION

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Abstract

The major purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes toward older persons of high school adolescents. A second purpose was to determine if certain personal and situational characteristics of the participants were related to the youth's attitudes toward older persons. Implications of the findings for the education of adolescents and adults are explored in this paper.

Concern with attitudes toward older persons arises from the fact that negative attitudes can lead to a rejection of this older age group and can have an impact on the treatment of the aged (Mutschler, 1971; Campbell, 1971). The literature also suggests that these attitudes are critical for the adjustment and, perhaps, even the survival of older persons, as well as the older adults' own self-image, feelings of adequacy and usefulness, and attitude toward life (Bennett and Eckman, 1973; Harris, 1975; Ross and Freitag, 1976). Negative attitudes toward the aged can also cause persons to reject their own aging.

It seems appropriate to determine the attitudes of adolescents toward older people. Adolescence is generally viewed as a crucial time of identity development and change. It is a time when many beliefs and attitudes become a part of the psychological self which the adolescent carries on into adulthood. Knowledge of the current levels of adolescent attitudes toward older adults is important, for such information can provide clues to individuals and institutions as they seek to help youth form more positive attitudes.

It is well-documented that a substantial proportion of society has negative attitudes toward aging and the aged (McTavish, 1971; Sadowski, 1978). Previous research has produced conflicting literature related to adolescents' attitudes toward older persons. Much of the literature reports that adolescents have negative attitudes regarding older citizens (Aaronson, 1966; Kogan and Shelton, 1962). There is some research (Hickey, Hickey, and Kalish, 1968) which suggests that adolescents hold the most negative attitudes toward older persons of any other age group. However, some recent literature seems to indicate that adolescents' attitudes may be changing in a more positive direction (Porter and O'Connor, 1978; Trent, Glass, and Crockett, 1979; Glass and Trent, 1980). The research project reported here was designed as another effort to determine if, in fact, positive attitudes toward older persons do exist among a sample of the youth population.

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Specifically, the present study was designed to address the following research questions:

1. What are the current levels of attitudes toward older persons of high school students in North Carolina?
2. To what extent are selected personal and situational characteristics (sex, age, religion, grade in school, birth order, race, school, death anxiety, and several variables related to previous experience with death) related to attitudes toward older persons?

METHODOLOGY

The sample for this study was drawn from eight senior high schools in North Carolina. The State was divided into three geographical areas. Nine school systems, three from each area, were selected at random. All high schools in the selected systems were assigned numbers and one school from each system was drawn at random. Eight schools responded affirmatively regarding their participation in the study. A replacement, through randomization, was sought for the ninth school, but one could not be found within the time restraints.

Two classes were chosen from each of the schools. This study was part of a larger study which also was concerned with adolescent attitudes toward death and dying. In the larger project, one class in each school was chosen to participate in a unit of study based on the appropriateness of that class for the content being considered. A class meeting at the same time of the experimental group served as the control group. In looking at the adolescents' attitudes toward older adults, the pretest data from both classes were analyzed as one group. A total of 475 students were involved in the data analysis.

A questionnaire was developed to gather demographic and personal data from each individual. Each student completed the Kogan Old People's (OP) Scale (Kogan, 1961) and the Templer-McMordie Death Anxiety (TM) Scale (McMordie, 1979). The Kogan OP Scale registers responses to 34 statements about older persons ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" on a range of from 1 to 6. A mean score was calculated on a scale of 1 to 6 and not on the summed total of the 34 items. The TM Scale registers responses to 15 items about death ranging from "Very Strongly Disagree" to "Very Strongly Agree" on a range from 1 to 7.

A least squares (LS) means analysis was used to perform the analysis of variance to establish F values for the significance of the relationship between attitudes toward older persons and the independent variables (Searle, 1971). LS means are the estimated treatment effects after adjusting for the effects of the other variables involved. The .10 level of significance was used in this study.

RESULTS

The subjects' mean scores on the OP Scale ranged from a low of 2.09 to a high of 5.24. The overall mean for the total sample was 4.05. If a score of 3.5 can be considered as a neutral position, then the sample as a whole might be characterized as possessing a moderately positive attitude toward older adults.

Looking at the data in a different fashion, it was found that 58 adolescents, or 12.2 percent, had a pretest mean score of 3.5 or lower. This means that 417, or 87.8 percent, of the youth had mean scores above 3.5, thus indicating that a majority of the adolescents possessed positive attitudes toward older persons as measured by the OP Scale.

The following variables did not appear to be significantly related to the adolescents' attitudes toward the aged: sex, birth order, last personal involvement with death, most recent attendance at funeral, discussion of death and dying at home, death anxiety, and school. Death anxiety (0.1299) and the school one attended (0.1326) approached significance.

Five of the independent variables were significantly related to the students' attitudes: age, religious preference, grade in school, race, and the students' first involvement with death.

Except for the 16-year olds, all of the age groups were quite similar in their LS mean scores. Those who were 16 years of age had more positive attitude scores than the other groups (15 and below, 17, and 18).

Members of the Jewish faith had more positive attitudes toward older persons (4.35); however, there were only nine adolescents in this category. Those indicating no religious preference (3.82) and members of the Catholic faith (3.98) had the lowest scores.

The seniors had the most positive attitudes (4.24), followed by the 9 and 10 graders (4.06), with the 11th graders having the lowest scores (3.94).

White students had the most positive attitudes (4.16) when compared with the non-whites (4.00).

It is difficult to interpret the findings related to the respondents' first personal involvement with death. Those who indicated "no involvement" with death had the least positive attitudes toward older persons (3.66), with those who had lost a brother or sister having the next lowest scores (3.95). Adolescents indicating the "other" category (4.47) and "parent" (4.29) as their first encounter with death had the more positive attitudes.

CONCLUSIONS

The mean attitude score was 4.05 out of a possible 6.0 indicating a moderately positive attitude toward the aged. This finding would suggest that adolescents' attitudes toward older adults are becoming more positive, as indicated by the more recent studies cited earlier. This positive attitude is certainly consistent with the earlier studies involving adolescents in North Carolina (Trent, Glass, and Crockett, 1979; Glass and Trent, 1980). In fact, the mean score of the present study is higher than that (3.94) found in the 1980 study among junior highs. These findings may mean that adolescents tend to have positive attitudes toward older persons. It is encouraging to think that there may be a positive trend developing within our society.

Personal and situational characteristics of the respondents which seemed to be related to attitudes toward older persons were age, religious preference, grade, race, and first involvement with death. Sixteen year olds had the most positive attitudes. Students in the 12th grade had the most positive scores. The Jewish respondents had the most positive attitudes, but it is difficult to draw conclusions because of the small number in that category.

While there have been conflicting findings regarding the relationship between race and attitudes toward the aged, the findings of the study support those of Trent, Glass, and Crockett (1979) with whites having more positive attitudes than nonwhites. It is not known if this is a state or regional trend, but there does appear to be some basis for assuming that there are some racial differences in attitudes among the youth of North Carolina.

It is difficult to interpret the findings regarding first involvement with death. There appears to be a relationship, but the nature of that relationship needs further research.

IMPLICATIONS

While educators can be encouraged that the youth of this study possessed positive attitudes toward older adults, one must remember that the attitudes were not overwhelmingly positive. The term used earlier was "moderately positive," and that seems to best describe the attitudes of the sample. If the attitudes of the youth of this study are typical, then one can assume that there is room for the development of more positive attitudes within the youth population.

It is important to remind the reader that attitudes are learned -- and new ones can also be learned. In times of developmental transition, attitudes, beliefs, and values are examined, reinforced or rejected. New attitudes may also be formed. For the adolescent, this process of self-examination leads to the psychological organization which is carried over into young adulthood. Thus, while attitudes toward older persons should be a concern for all age groups, adolescence, as a developmental transition, takes on critical importance as a time "ripe" for educational intervention aimed at reinforcing and developing positive attitudes toward the aged.

From the literature, it seems that attitudes are primarily formed through interaction with others, direct experiences with the attitude object and increased knowledge (Triandis, 1971). Based on this information, one can speculate that educational experiences designed to change attitudes toward older persons should focus on factual information regarding the aging process (dispelling myths and stereotypes) and should provide for positive contact with well-adjusted older adults. Opportunities should also be developed for the youth to discuss their ideas and feelings with others (interaction). There is some evidence which suggests that such learning experiences can influence more positive attitudes in adolescents (Trent, Glass, and Crockett, 1978; Glass and Trent, 1980). Educators concerned with this issue can find or develop outlines of educational interventions to be incorporated in a variety of content areas (psychology, social studies, biology, family living and English -- to name a few) either as a special unit or interspersed throughout the course.

Concern for adolescents' attitudes toward older adults is critical. However, based on the current research project, two groups emerge as warranting special attention. Males and nonwhites appeared to have more negative attitudes and special consideration should be given them when designing educational experiences about aging.

While the previous remarks have been directed to youth educators, there are some implications which can be directed to the educators of adults. It is the feeling of the authors that adult educators need to be concerned with the attitudes of those who teach and interact with adolescents on a day-to-day basis. This group includes teachers, parents and professional and lay workers in youth-serving organizations (scouts, churches, 4-H, etc.). These adults serve as important role models and have considerable influence on the attitudes formed by adolescents. Thus, while they may not actually teach about aging, they can aid in the development of more positive attitudes toward aging and the aged.

In working with these adults, adult educators can develop in-service training experiences on aging for teachers and other professional youth workers. Workshops on aging can be developed for parents and/or volunteer workers or aging can be incorporated into workshops concerned with other, broader areas. It may be difficult to get these adults to study about aging as it may remind them of their own aging; yet, such learning experiences need to be attempted.

As mentioned previously, one of the best ways to promote attitude change is through contact with the "attitude object." Educational experiences can be one means by which adolescents (and adults, for that matter) can have contact with vital, healthy older adults. The use of older adults in the public school classroom as a volunteer and/or resource person could be one valuable way to provide such contact. For example, who could teach modern history more vividly than someone who had lived it?

To take such contact further, adult educators might initiate intergenerational studies bringing several age groups together to learn about topics other than aging and to learn from each other. Through this lifelong learning approach, adolescents (and middle-age adults) would have the opportunity for contact with older adults who are still growing and learning.

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A PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATION OF THE RELEVANCE OF PAULO FREIRE
FOR THE EDUCATION OF OLDER ADULTS

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Abstract

The major purpose of this paper is to consider the appropriateness of Freire's approach to education for use with older adults. Freire's orientation is discussed as a means of providing relevancy of program content and process to the needs and unique social position of the aged. Implications are given for both researchers and practitioners who work with older adults.

Low participation in formal educational programs, and more specifically in programs for older adults, is often cited as a problem in the field of adult education. One factor influencing this low participation by older persons may be the relevancy, or lack of relevancy, of the program content and process to the needs, lifestyle, and unique social position of the elderly in our society. While the content may be based on a needs assessment of the elderly, this process still may not afford older learners the involvement in their learning which they may be capable of or desire. Rather than using a needs assessment to determine what the educator will teach, a process should be used which will allow the older learner to decide what he or she will learn. The distinction between these two approaches can be found in Paulo Freire's education for transiting.

Freire's main concern is with adult literacy and his methods have centered mainly with literacy programs in pre-industrial, developing countries. While his literacy methods may or may not be appropriate for the aged in Western industrial societies, it is felt that his theory and philosophy of education can be appropriately adapted. It is this theoretical orientation and its application to the elderly as an oppressed group which shall be considered here.

Freire's approach to adult education is one in which the educator assists persons in transiting from a state of oppression and limited consciousness to a more adequate way of perceiving reality, a state of increased personal freedom. Through this process, people can learn not only to read but to have a sense of worth. Freire calls this conscientization which can best be defined as "... the process in which men, not as recipients, but as knowing subjects, achieve a deepening awareness both of the sociocultural reality which shapes their lives and their capacity to transform that reality" (Freire, 1970, p. 27 [Editor's Note]).

Various levels of consciousness have been outlined by Freire (1981, pp. 17-19), beginning with a semi-intransitive or magical consciousness. At this level, there is a preoccupation with meeting elementary needs and a near absence of historical consciousness. As Freire states (1981, p. 17), "... semi-intransitivity represents a near disengagement between men and their existence." A "culture of silence" is characteristic of this level. Naive transitivity is the state of consciousness where, at a naive and primitive level, people begin to perceive that since the cultural situation is determined by men, they can have some control over their lives. It is here that there is the danger of control by manipulative populist leadership. The highest level of consciousness is critical transitivity. At this level, the person is able to scrutinize his or her own thoughts and see the proper causal relationships. Intellectual efforts alone cannot bring about critical consciousness; praxis--social action plus reflection--is also necessary.

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For Freire, learning is the process of moving from one level of consciousness to another. "Learning begins with assessing the present level of consciousness as it is manifest in language, self-concept, world view, and present living conditions" (Elias, 1976, p. 136). Elias goes on to state (p. 137): "Learning, for Freire, then, is the total process of becoming aware of the concrete situation in which (one) lives, understanding how that situation came about, how it might be changed, and then acting to change it."

Freire bases his approach on the belief that people cannot only discuss their problems, but that they have the power to solve them. Conscientization is co-intentional education with both the "teacher" and the "student" involved in critically unveiling reality and in re-creating knowledge--they are able to teach each other through dialogue.

Freire (1973) states that the goals of education are reflected in its application. If the goal of education is to dominate and domesticate, then education is manifested as the act of transferring knowledge. Knowledge is a static fact, not a process, and educators then see knowledge as something they "possess." The learners are those who do not know and the task of the educator becomes that of transferring this knowledge. If the goal of education is a liberating one, the educator sees knowledge not as a static fact but as a process. The educator does not "know"; therefore, the "teacher" and the "learner" can learn together. As Freire states (1973, p. 79): "Both subjects are mediated by the nonverbal object--that is, the object which can be known."

If the learning situation is to go beyond the mere acquisition of knowledge, then the educator's approach will be different than that found in traditional Western education. In this respect, Freire elaborates (1977, p. 13):

Thus the task facing the educator is to find better aids to help the students exert the role of active agents in the process of their own education. Instruments to facilitate the 'problematization' of the object to be unveiled and apprehended by the students must be constantly invented and reinvented by the educator. The educator's task is not to use such methods and techniques to unveil the object of the study himself and then hand it over paternalistically to the students, thereby depriving them of the search effort which is indispensable in the process of knowledge-acquisition.

In considering Freire's theory for use with the aged in Western society, it is first necessary to understand the sociocultural milieu in which this group lives. Rosow (1974) states that there are major institutional factors, including property ownership, strategic knowledge, and productivity which determine the patterns of social organization, and the status of older people, in all societies. Changes in modern American life have undermined these institutional supports for the aged and relegated them to a weak, powerless position. More specifically, the loss of these supports has created situations of devaluation, stereotyping, exclusion, role loss, role ambiguity and the need for youthful self-images for the elderly. Rosow outlines Rose's writings on the aged as a subculture; however, he feels that there is no compelling evidence of a growing group consciousness among the aged. In fact, he states that older adults do not identify themselves with the aged, a fact that was brought out in the 1975 Harris survey.

In Ageism: Prejudice and Discrimination Against the Elderly, Levin and Levin (1980) argue that the aged meet the criteria which distinguish them as a minority group. They state that gerontological literature has tended to explain the problems of the aged as the result of the individual's deterioration and decline, thus "blaming the victim" for the problems that exist. Retirement and service programs are seen as a means of socializing the victims to their fate. In speaking to the lack of status given the elderly, the authors state (p. 113):

American society asks minority group members to play a role; that is, to fulfill a set of expectations that separate them from others and maintain their subordinate status. Old people are asked to play the role of senior citizens. They are supposed to stay out of the way, sit in their rocking chairs, and enjoy the

golden years. Unfortunately, the role of senior citizen is based on negative stereotypes, lacking socially approved alternatives.

The prevalence of such negative stereotypes has been empirically proven in numerous studies including McTavish (1971) and Harris (1975).

It is difficult to assign the current social position of the aged to a particular level within Freire's levels of consciousness. These levels were developed as a descriptive rather than an empirical typology and their main value can come as a starting point in determining the status of the group being considered. Another difficulty in categorizing the elderly is the wide variation found within this age group. While the aged are often grouped together as one aggregate sharing many commonalities, in actuality, each aging cohort differs from the previous groups and the members within each cohort become more diverse as they age. Thus, it is difficult to make broad generalizations regarding their level of consciousness.

It can be said, however, that widespread acceptance of the negative stereotypes of the aged has led to an internalization of these images by the elderly themselves and to possible dependency and self-depreciation. This situation would point to a lower level of naive consciousness. The efforts of older adults toward a subculture of aging may suggest increased awareness; however, there is little evidence that the aged as a group have developed a critical consciousness.

London (1973) states that the myths of society are perpetuated by its educational systems. This can be seen as true in the educational programs designed for older adults. In looking at these programs, Moody (1976) states that at the present, they are organized around a social services approach (Stage II). From this perspective, it is assumed that one deals with the "symptoms" because the underlying condition cannot be corrected. The educator would provide programs for the older learners who would then become progressively more passive. Educational pursuits would center around leisure-time activities, thus perpetuating the myths of the elderly as ineffectual, incapable of learning and having no contribution to make to society. Moody goes on to state (p. 6): "Old people are portrayed as human beings who have become something less than human, that is, they are not seriously engaged in projects and demands of life that are validated by the entire community as supremely worthwhile, such as work, child rearing, artistic creation, or spiritual devotion."

Freire's approach to education would be effective in moving educational programs for older adults from a social services perspective to one of participation (Stage III). At this level, Moody states that the notion of participation suggests activity and the discovery of new ways for involvement with and integration in society. "Older people must experience a kind of 'consciousness raising' that allows them to adopt a positive attitude toward their situation and to take steps to change it. They need help in shedding the self-hatred caused by stereotypes and the prevailing attitudes of society at large" (Moody, 1976, p. 8).

Freire's highest level of critical consciousness can be seen as related to Moody's Stage IV of self-actualization. Through the process of conscientization, the older adult can come to an understanding of the effect which the social structures of society have on his or her self-image and perceived roles. By developing this awareness, the older adult can see that he or she can have an impact in altering the organization of these structures and can then begin action to change them.

There are other characteristics of the aged population which make Freire's approach to education an appropriate one. As was stated earlier, intra-cohort and inter-cohort differences create variation within the older age group. The task, therefore, of conducting a needs assessment which can effectively guide the organization of educational programs to meet the broad needs of all older adults becomes increasingly difficult. If each learning group of older adults is able to develop a process of dialogue to develop their own goals and the context for meeting these goals, then the learning experience will have maximum relevancy for them. Also, if the educator is equally involved in this process and has the

necessary attitudes needed to carry it out, it could serve to promote the conscientization of the educator toward his or her own aging.

As has been previously stated, Freire's main efforts have been directed toward literacy programs. Many older adults could benefit from such programs for the average educational level of Americans 65 and over was 9.7 years of schooling in 1980 (Hendricks and Hendricks, 1981, p. 77). The problem goes beyond illiteracy, however, for as London (1973, p. 54) states: "In addition to the illiterate, we have many millions of adults who are functionally illiterate in terms of the demands of a rapidly changing society and world." If an educational program is organized around the transfer of static knowledge, then it becomes a part of the problem rather than the solution for these facts are soon outdated and irrelevant. One means of assisting the older adult in dealing with such rapid change is the organization of education as a constant process of constant redefinition of the world and the social reality of the learner. This frees the learner to gain new information, improve coping skills and develop more appropriate behavior which is relevant to this reality.

In viewing overriding implications, it can be seen that an application of Freire's theory would impact the manner in which we approach, organize and conduct educational activities. This approach would also affect the attitudes which we as educators would bring to the learning situation. The impact of the older learner in this process would be similar to that gained through a more traditional needs assessment but would go far beyond. The educational activity would be a joint venture between educator and learner leading to more learner control of the content and process. Under this approach, educational programs would be by the consumer for the consumer rather than by the institution for the consumer. As older adults have, through their lifetimes, been able to effectively and appropriately manage and control other life situations, so should they be able to manage and control their learning activities.

This paper has been mainly concerned with the philosophical appropriateness of the use of Freire's methods with older adults. There can be seen, however, certain implications for research. Freire's methods developed as a response to a particular sociocultural environment. It would not seem appropriate to apply them directly to another society without investigation into the sociocultural and political conditions in that society. Certain adaptations may need to be made in these methods to make them more effective for use in post-industrial, Western society and these adaptations should be tested through research before their implementation.

In conclusion, it should be noted that any discussion of Freire's methods with the elderly should also include several cautions. Freire's approach to education falls on the learner-dominated, process-centered end of the continuum of instructional models for adult education. It is not possible to state that Freire's approach should be the only approach for use with older adults for there are situations when a more teacher-dominated, content-centered approach would be more appropriate. These situations would include the need to learn rapidly or the need to meet specific objectives.

A final note of caution can be found in Elias (p. 136): "There is the real possibility that people involved in conscientization might become even more entrenched in their thinking once they see the full impact of oppression in their lives." For the educator utilizing Freire's methods with older learners, there would be the need for supportive behavior, avoidance of indoctrination and manipulation, control by the learners on the timing and speed of the process and some measure of success built into the experience.

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'NONFORMAL EDUCATION AS AN EMPOWERING PROCESS' FOR
OLDER NORTH AMERICANS

Nancy E. Maklan

Abstract

Because only a small, "elite" segment of the older American population is currently participating in educational programs, a new educational approach is proposed here for the less advantaged, nonparticipating older adults. This approach would take its perspective on aging problems from macrolevel analyses of their socioeconomic contexts, and its educational philosophy and methods from 'nonformal education as an empowering process,' an educational approach developed for Third World populations.

At the White House Conference on Aging in 1981, the first recommendation made by the Committee on Education and Training Opportunities stated: "...education is not only an inherent right of all age groups, it is a necessity for a society struggling to achieve a fuller measure of social justice for all Americans..." (1981 White House Conference on Aging, 1982, p. 154). The Chartbook on Aging in America, published by that same conference, reports that in 1978, only 2.4% of all Americans aged 65 and over enrolled in an adult education course. (1981 White House Conference on Aging, 1981a, p. 132). In fact, data collected by the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1967 indicates that, along with years of formal schooling, age is the strongest predictor of participation in educational programs.

THE EDUCATIONAL ELITE

Research's description of the older student -- the type of older person most likely to defy prevailing trends and get involved in educational activities -- holds no great surprises. For one thing, the older student is probably not very old. The vast majority seniors who participate in educational activities are under 75 years. This prototypical older student has achieved a high level of formal education. In fact, level of formal educational attainment is generally accepted to be the most important predictor of participation in adult education. Unfortunately, this puts the majority of today's elders at a significant disadvantage since in 1980, only 7% of the older cohort had graduated from college, only 38% had completed high school, and a full 10% were functionally illiterate (1981 White House Conference on Aging, 1981a, pp. 128-129). The prototypical older student, particularly if she/he is involved in a college or university program, has an income that is well above the average for the age group. With regard to occupational status, however, once educational attainment is controlled, it appears that job history is not a distinguishing characteristic of the older student. Nonetheless, what the completed picture of the prototypical student clearly indicates is that programs of education for older persons are an "...elitist' enterprise set up primarily for a precious minority..." (McCluskey, 1974, p. 342).

The danger implicit to this situation is that the tremendous effort required to attract hard-to-reach adults to educational programs tends to foster an attitude of disclaimer in which the nonparticipants are considered entirely to blame for their failure to take advantage of any of the educational opportunities that are being offered. Regrettably, this attitude is especially close at hand when the educator is confronting nonparticipation in an older clientele. With elders it is easy to become convinced that nonattendees are simply not capable of handling an educational experience, either physically or cognitively.

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However, it has become well recognized, at least theoretically, that precisely because it is the many older persons who continue to suffer from some form of deprivation who are least likely to be attracted to current educational programs, there must be a campaign to reach out to this reluctant group. It has also become well recognized, at least theoretically, that this effort will have to include new educational objectives as well as new educational methods. As expressed to participants at the 1981 White House Conference on Aging:

"Most of the major problems in the lives of older people on which the conference focuses -- economic security, physical and mental health, social well-being, and using older people as a national resource -- can be addressed effectively by learning which gives older people the capacity to deal with them....The vast majority of those most in need, are still unreached. Much of the education offered for older people is not as relevant as it should be to their most pressing needs. Too much of it is conveyed in traditional forms, through conventional teaching in a classroom, rather than in a diversity of modes, formats, and styles. (1981 White House Conference on Aging, 1981b, p. 3)

What is being advocated by this paper, in response to such calls to action as that given above, is that the focus of these efforts at extension go beyond educational methods, and even beyond study of the characteristics of the individuals who form the targetted population. Besides these two essential components of educational endeavor, efforts will focus squarely on the sociopolitical situation that is being experienced by older North Americans. This form of education for older North Americans is derived from two principal sources. It takes its perspective on the problems encountered in old age from recently formulated macrolevel analyses of the older population's position in modern industrial society. It takes its educational philosophy and methods, plus its name, from 'Nonformal education as an empowering process' that has been developing for Third World countries.

THE SOCIOECONOMIC POLITICS OF BEING OLD IN NORTH AMERICA

American society has focused attention and sympathy on the plight of older citizens. Some observers even fear that the elderly might become the target of resentment from other population groups because of the favored response their issues seem to receive from policy makers, although, particularly under the present federal administration, this partiality certainly does not protect all elders from serious deprivation. Since the enactment of the Older Americans Act in 1965 a significant amount of action has been taken on behalf of older persons in the United States.

However, in recent years there has been a growing number of gerontologists whose observations and research in the field have been highly critical of the treatment received by elders. Their criticisms revolve around their recognition that how a person defines a problem significantly determines how that person will solve the problem. They are convinced that our society has adopted a fallacious and exploitative perception of old age. Carol Estes describes this interpretation in her book, The Aging Enterprise (1979):

"The major problems faced by the elderly in the United States are, in large measure, ones that are socially constructed as a result of our conceptions of aging and the aged. What is done for and about the elderly, as well as what we know about them, including knowledge gained from research, are products of our conceptions of aging. In an important sense, then, the major problems faced by the elderly are the ones we create for them. (p. 1)

Estes points out that the gerontological establishment has studied aging and problems in the elderly almost exclusively from a social-psychological perspective. From this perspective has emanated an impressive series of developmental theories that attempt to explain the complete aging process, including all significant problems observed in the elderly population. This fixation on social-psychological causation has allowed theorists, practitioners and policy makers to avoid taking a close look at the macrolevel political and economic structures that may actually be creating the problems that are presently assumed to be inevitable in old age. Walker (1981) explains that the prevailing theories of aging have fostered a tendency to "...treat elderly people as a detached minority, independent from

economic and political systems, and 'their problems' in terms of individual adjustment to aging and retirement." (p. 88) According to this perspective, prevalence of relative poverty and dependency is a natural, albeit unfortunate, characteristic of old age. Assistance is given to the victims of these conditions in the form of government checks and advice on how to live on a limited budget. The focus is on helping elderly people adjust and adapt to their problems. If a macrolevel perspective is taken, however, the focus is on the social, economic and political context of the tendency toward poverty and dependency in old age. Thus, poverty and dependency are not perceived as characteristic of aging, but instead as the products of older people's separation from gainful employment due to retirement, a major life transition that usually heralds a decrease of one-half to two-thirds of an individual's income (Brotman, 1981, p.3)

Levin and Levin (1980) relate the traditional practice of attributing problems to difficulties in individual adjustment to William Ryan's concept, "blaming the victim" (Ryan, 1971). According to Ryan 'blaming the victim' consists of identifying the characteristics that distinguish the victim from the rest of the population, and then proposing how the problems experienced by the victim may result from these characteristics. This is, in other words, a convenient confusion of symptoms with causes. Levin and Levin translate this insidious process into the aging situation as follows:

"...gerontology tends to treat aging as an independent variable (assumed cause), something that shapes the way we live our later lives. We should also see aging as an important dependent variable (assumed effect), the result of the structure of the complex society in which we live. (Levin and Levin, 1980, p. 42)

Another popular definition of aging that has aroused serious concern is that which R. A. Kalish (1981) has dubbed the 'Failure Models': "The general message of the Failure Models is that this or that older person has failed or is going to fail." (p.235) The consequence of this definition of aging is that there is an overwhelming tendency to 'do for' older people, individually, and in terms of services and public policy, sometimes at the expense of their personal integrity and freedom. This 'Failure Models' definition has also had impressive success in convincing older people, themselves, that old age is associated with powerlessness, uselessness and ineffectiveness.

The macrolevel perspective on aging provides fascinating insight into the problems of the later years. However, this perspective's true significance lies in its dedication to seeking out solutions to problems in aging, instead of unquestioningly accepting them as characteristics of the process. It provides direction for creating change, and therein lies its significance for education, particularly education for older persons who are currently not attending educational programs. These people are, as described earlier in this paper, often the elders most in need of knowledge and skills to 'solve' major problems in their lives, but most of the educational opportunities that are being offered to them adhere to the traditional microlevel gerontological approach, and therefore concentrate on helping elderly individuals adapt to the transitions and losses that are considered an inevitable part of their stage of life.

The macrolevel perspective on aging, then, represents an appropriate conceptual framework for a new 'problem-solving' educational model intended to meet the needs of less advantaged older people. It is proposed that 'nonformal education as an empowering process' represents an appropriate vehicle for sharing this perspective with elders who might benefit from it.

NONFORMAL EDUCATION AS AN EMPOWERING PROCESS FOR THIRD WORLD DEVELOPMENT

The concept of nonformal education (NFE) was originally popularized by Philip Coombs in the book, New Paths of Learning for Rural Children and Youth (1973). His definition of this education was not actually in terms of what it is, but rather in terms of what it is not: "...we define nonformal education as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system -- whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity -- that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and

learning objectives." (p. 11) This description of nonformal education took on increasing definition as educators for development studied and worked in nonformal educational settings. For our purposes, this paper will focus on one particular form of NFE because this form was developed specifically to help people who share some significant characteristics with the less advantaged older population of North America; namely, they have few resources, little power, and little experience with education.

The fundamental goal that this form of NFE has for its learners is 'empowerment,' which has been defined by Suzanne Kindervatter (1979) as: "People gaining an understanding of and control over social, economic, and/or political forces in order to improve their standing in society." (p. 13) The principal goal of NFE for empowerment, then, is highly consistent with the spirit and potential of the macrolevel perspective on aging. It is also extraordinarily applicable to the stated needs of older Americans, despite the technological advancement of their native land. Another feature of 'NFE as an empowering process' that is highly relevant to the discussion of this paper resides in the history of its development. NFE for empowerment was an educational response to macrolevel analyses of the societies and the complex power relationships that surround the indigent peoples whom it serves. It is an educational approach specifically designed to help its learners become aware of the social, economic and political forces that control their lives, and to provide them with the skills, or "processes," that would allow them to take over this control.

The principal inspiration, the fundamental educational philosophy, and many of the practices of this educational movement to empower came from the work of Paulo Freire (1978, 1973, 1968). In the early sixties Freire developed an approach that focuses on what he calls "conscientizacao," which is the degree of consciousness with which the learners are able to see the social system that impinges on them. This approach has two principal goals: (1) to help students gain critical consciousness, which is an ability to "...understand the ...contradictions in their own lives, to generalize those contradictions to others around them and to transform society creatively with others." (Smith, 1976, p 2); and (2) to help the students take action that is in coordination with their growing awareness, action that "reforms" and "transforms" their environment in order to provide greater liberation for all. Freire's principal educational strategy is a process that he calls "problem-posing." The problems that are dealt with are generated by the learners from their personal experiences and beliefs. The process that is undertaken consists of the learners working to answer three probing questions about these problems: (1) What are the problems in this situation? (naming) (2) Why do these problems exist? (reflecting), and (3) What can be done to change this situation? (acting).

Time and practical applications of Freire's educational approach have produced modifications and additions to the paradigm, but NFE as an empowering process has remained very true to the spirit of what Freire created:

"Generally, NFE for empowering is an educational approach which enables learners to gain greater understanding of and control over social, economic, and/or political forces through: 1) exercising a high degree of control over all aspects of the learning process; 2) learning both "content" and "process" skills responsive to their needs and problems; and 3) working collaboratively to solve mutual problems. (Kindervatter, 1979, p. 245)

The principal modification/addition to Freire's approach has been the development of more detailed, practical instructions on how to carry out this educational approach. There now exist guidelines and recommendations for preplanning, materials development, physical layout, training of facilitators, and most other aspects of the educational process. What follows here is a very basic list of the fundamental strategies of NFE as an empowering process that has been derived from a number of planners:

1. focus on development of critical consciousness
2. dialogue education that focuses on the learners' needs and experiences (which is understood to require investment of considerable time and energy in order to thoroughly comprehend these needs and experiences, and also the interaction styles

- most appropriate for the participants)
3. problem-posing
4. educator acts as facilitator - all relationships between the students and facilitator are horizontal
5. development of leadership skills in the participants
6. focus on the realities of the participants' here and now

All presentation and teaching strategies in NFE have been designed to maximize comfort and minimize threat for people, like the vast majority of older adults in America, who are unfamiliar and uncomfortable with the prospect of being involved in educational programming. NFE emphasizes convenient location and flexibility. Programs are generally short-term and are scheduled for convenience.

The intention here is not to dwell on how exactly less advantaged older North Americans resemble peasants and slum dwellers in Third World Countries, only to propose that there is sufficient congruity in areas of experience, motivation and need to suggest that an educational approach that has been successful at both educating and empowering oppressed people in the Third World, is well worth developing as an educational alternative for older North Americans. NFE for empowering is not being seen as a panacea to meet the educational needs of all disempowered older people; nor is it considered a solution to end all oppression. However, it has proven effective under difficult circumstances and with populations that share some characteristics and some problems with older Americans. Can we afford to ignore its potential?

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STUDENTS IN LIFE CYCLE TRANSITIONS -
DO EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS RESPOND?

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Abstract

This paper discusses a research project that examines the extent to which college students experiencing a life cycle transition perceive their educational program as beneficial. The data demonstrate significant differences between life cycle transition groups. A brief review of the literature and implications drawn from the findings are included.

College and university student populations are becoming more age diversified. Students representing all ages are presenting to institutions of higher education a myriad of educational needs reflective of the challenges of their life cycle stage. When student populations were more homogenous, knowledge of the growth and development of the students could be limited to what transpired during a single period of life, but such knowledge must not transcend the entire life span. Chickering (1981) contends that only through understanding how students experiencing all life cycle stages attempt to meet challenges and developmental tasks will institutions of higher education be equipped to meet students' educational needs. To gain further knowledge of the relationship between particular stages of the adult life cycle and educational programs offered by institutions of higher education, a research study was undertaken by the author. Specifically, the study collected data on several aspects of how students experiencing a life cycle transition perceive their educational program. This paper presents a rationale for the study, a brief review of the literature, the analysis of the data, and implications for institutions of higher education.

DEVELOPMENTAL THEORY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

Developmental theorists agree that the adult life cycle is not an unchanging period as once contended, but rather follows a sequence of stable and transition stages. Stable periods are usually associated with a general feeling of life satisfaction on the part of individuals experiencing them while transition periods represent a time of uncertainty marked by a desire to seek a more stable period. To facilitate movement out of life cycle transitions, adults turn to a variety of organizations and institutions (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980). Examples of these organizations and institutions include religious institutions, community service organizations and professional counseling centers. Another segment of adults experiencing life cycle transitions, however, turn to institutions of education. Research has documented that transitions generate especially high motivation for learning (Cross, 1981; Aslanian and Brickell, 1980; Havighurst, 1973) and that "adults tend to enroll in undergraduate programs, particularly liberal arts programs, at times of transition in their lives" (Tarule and Weathersby, 1979, p. 18). It is the inevitable stimulation and challenge of transitions in life that account for most adult learning (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980, in Cross, 1981).

While only thirty percent (30%) of adult learners turn to educational institutions as their preferred learning situation, a collegiate institution is the choice of the majority of adults experiencing a transition (Aslanian and Brickell, 1980). In addition, the number of adults enrolling in educational programs offered by colleges and universities is

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expected to increase substantially, provided institutions respond to their needs (Chickering, et al., 1976; Weathersby and Tarule, 1980; Chickering, 1981; Cross, 1981). Thus, if policymakers and program implementors in higher education are to respond effectively to the increasing percentage of adults in the nation's population and to their diverse educational needs, an in-depth understanding of why adults turn to higher education is required. Likewise, policymakers and program implementors in higher education will have to determine whether these needs are being met.

Several interpretations have been provided of the role institutions of higher education play in facilitating adult transitions. Monge and Gardner (1976) contend that education can be considered as a means of keeping open the options for individuals as they advance through the life cycle. Education can help prepare an individual for the transitions that will occur in life circumstances. Birren and Woodruff (1973) assert that it is the knowledge of developmental tasks that provides relevancy in the education of adults. By assisting adults in meeting the appropriate life cycle developmental tasks, education gains purpose. Likewise, Tarule and Weathersby (1979), Chickering (1981) and Cross (1981) affirm that institutions must be aware of the transitions experienced by adults and that helping individuals meet the developmental tasks associated with transitions should be a major goal of higher education.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT: ONE VIEW

According to Robert Havighurst (1973), the concept of life cycle transitions has its foundation in the research of those psychologists who have attempted to construct a paradigm for a life span view of personality development. The chief concern was in the pattern of behavior that resulted from the individual interacting with a social environment. From this research, the understanding of human development and its subsets, childhood development, adolescent development, student development and adult development have expanded. Birren and Woodruff (1973) provide a general definition of human development as the process whereby an individual matures from a less to a more differentiated state and advances to a higher or later stage of an ability, skill or trait. Knox (1977) defines human development as "the orderly and sequential changes in characteristics and attitudes that adults experience over time. Earlier or antecedent characteristics help shape subsequent or consequent characteristics" (p. 9).

One avenue for explaining how adults progress through the life span is psychosocial development theory. Constructed around the foundation laid by Erik Erikson (1963), the psychosocial development theory holds that the life span can be divided into stages or periods. The research of Roger Gould (1972, 1978) further defines the concept of life stages by indicating that the life cycle can be divided into identifiable age groups. Levinson (1974, 1978) documents that not only do life cycle stages exist, but that they are age-linked and can be characterized as being either periods of stability or transition.

A life cycle framework similar to Levinson's has been proposed by Chickering and Havighurst (1981) who contend that stages of the life cycle are definable by the developmental tasks associated with each. These developmental tasks can arise from anyone or a combination of the following physical maturations: shifting social roles, social and work pressures or opportunities and changing values and aspirations. While the developmental tasks of stable stages appear to revolve around meeting current life structure challenges, the developmental tasks of the transition periods are associated with preparation for the future.

Adult Transitions

It would appear from reviewing the literature concerning adult development theory that the concept of life cycle transitions arose in an attempt to explain shorter, more questioning time periods experienced by adults as they advance through the life cycle. Levinson (1978) considers these transitions as the "boundary zones" between the stages or eras of the life cycle. Unlike longer and more stable stages, transitions are periods of reassessment, questioning and resolution of life structure.

While the amount of research into adult life cycle transitions appears to be increasing, a common definition of what they are or when they begin or end is still lacking. While the publications of most life cycle researchers provide beginning and ending years for life stages, these researchers do not agree on the exact years. For this reason, it was necessary to estimate from the research the time periods of each of the three major adult life cycle transitions for use in the study. The transition periods and the ages used in the study were: the early adult transition, age 17-22, the mid-life transition, age 35-45 and the late adult transition, age 55-65.

DATA COLLECTION

The focus of the study was on adult students experiencing one of the three major adult life transitions. It was thus necessary to locate a population that had significant numbers of older students in addition to those of traditional college age. The population chosen was all students experiencing a life cycle transition, as defined in the study, at a large, multicampus, metropolitan, community college.

To collect the data required to answer the research questions posed, a questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire had three forms, one for each life cycle transition group and was based on the concept of developmental tasks resolution. Thus, each transition group was asked to indicate the extent to which they felt their educational program facilitated the developmental tasks associated with their respective transition period. A pilot study to test the questionnaire was completed at a different institution.

From the study population, 150 students from each transition group were randomly selected. An introductory letter, the questionnaire and a stamped, return addressed envelope were sent to each study participant. A return rate of approximately 40% was realized after the initial mailing.

The data were analyzed by several statistical techniques. The chief technique used was contingency table analysis. This technique demonstrated among which variables statistically significant relationships existed. The second technique utilized was discriminant analysis. Through use of discriminant analysis, it could be shown which combinations of demographic variables had a statistically significant impact on the study participants.

FINDINGS

The first research question posed by the study addressed the study participants' perceptions of the extent to which they felt their educational program facilitated their respective life cycle transition periods. The early adult transition group indicated they felt their educational program had been "very helpful" or "helpful" to them in meeting eleven of the twelve developmental tasks described on the questionnaire. The educational programs of the mid-life transition group were perceived to be "very helpful" or "helpful" in facilitating six developmental tasks and "somewhat helpful" or "not helpful" in facilitating seven of the developmental tasks. A more detailed cross-tabulation of the data which plotted the demographic variables against the developmental task items while controlling for study participants' transition group, revealed that the demographic variables program of study, employment status, enrollment status, marital status and level of income have significant relationships with the other variables. Ethnic background proved significant only for the late adult transition group when cross-tabulated against the developmental task items.

The study participants indicating that their educational programs were "very helpful" or "helpful" in facilitating their life cycle transition periods provided a variety of reasons to support their responses. The reasons cited most often by study participants included interaction with instructor, personal and career assessment/planning seminar, counseling services, the general college experience, and the courses/curriculum.

The second research question pertained to the reasons study participants identified for enrolling in their educational programs. The data analysis revealed that 69.8% of the

study participants enrolled for reasons related to their career or employment. In descending order, study participants identified other (11.0%), esthetic values (8.7%), leisure (6.4%), family (1.7%), health (1.2%), and citizenship/political activity (1.2%). Discriminant analysis determined that two discriminant functions were significant at the 0.05 alpha level and that the variables sex, marital status, and level of education had the greatest relative contribution to the discriminant functions.

Discriminant analysis was also utilized as one technique to answer the third research question which addressed the emergence of patterns among the demographic variables within each life cycle transition period. Two discriminant functions emerged significant at the 0.05 alpha level and accounted for 100 percent of the total variance. The variables sex, enrollment and employment status proved to have the largest relative discriminating power.

IMPLICATIONS

The call for colleges and universities to respond to the educational and personal development needs of older adult students is increasing. The data gathered from this study add a new dimension to this challenge. Not only must institutions of higher education be aware that the educational and personal development needs of students change as they grow older, but these needs are linked to the life cycle stage of the student. Students experiencing a life cycle transition deliver to colleges and universities a unique set of developmental tasks and look to the educational program offered them in their resolution. The primary implications for action resulting from this research include: 1) College and university administrators and faculty members must be aware of the developmental changes that occur in individuals as they advance through the life cycle. Effective educational programs will hinge on knowledge of the specific developmental tasks associated with each stage and how well students perceive their developmental tasks as being facilitated. 2) Colleges and universities must acknowledge and act on the fact that adult students enroll for a variety of reasons and not always primarily for academic credit. While the content of particular learning activity is important, the incentive for enrolling will impact on students' expectations of their learning outcomes. 3) Colleges and universities must provide students experiencing a life cycle transition the vehicle for them to successfully pass through their transition stage. Their period of questioning and commitment-making often calls for alternative and innovative avenues to achieve the educational and personal developmental goals. 4) Colleges and universities must assess what they can and cannot offer students. If students seeking resolution to life concerns present themselves to institutions of higher education in an attempt to resolve their concerns, the institution must adequately assess its ability to help the student. Students' incentives for entering must be addressed long with the learning expectations in order for students to have an educationally successful and personally beneficial experience.

CONCLUSION

As the number of older students enrolling in institutions of higher education continues to increase, the percentage of students experiencing a life cycle transition will also swing upward. This paper provided a brief review of the literature related to life cycle transitions, and presented the findings of a research study that examined how students experiencing a life cycle transition perceive their educational program. Findings from the study demonstrate that students in the mid-life and late adult transition period do not perceive their educational program as facilitating their transition period to the same extent as those in the early adult transition period. Major implications can be drawn from the findings that impact on how institutions of higher education can meet the educational needs of adult students.

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INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION:
AN AID IN THE ENHANCEMENT
OF THE SELF-CONCEPT IN THE AGING

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Abstract

Self esteem can be greatly affected by the development of interpersonal communications skills, especially in the elderly. A six week writing course using the Elbow "teacherless" writing method was used with thirty volunteers, ages 65-75 from a home for the elderly in Atlanta, Georgia. There were: the experimental group, control group, pre-test and post-test groups, and only the post test groups. After assessing self-concept, using Block's 1961 Q-Sort, the participants attended the writing sessions, and were re-tested. Date of the Block-Q re-test showed that the effect was significant when the six week period elapsed.

The aging of the American population has become a reality. Every day over 4,000 Americans celebrate their sixty-fifth birthday. Even though on that day they are not discernibly older, either mentally or physically, these celebrants are cast into the aged category (Gunn, 1977). Even though the older person still has much to contribute to society through work and community life, he is suddenly removed from the active and productive role that carries financial, psychological, and social satisfaction.

The older person begins to symbolize a position that is exactly opposite from the "American Dream" (Hochschild, 1973). In America, social status has come to be represented by youth, wealth, and recognition. These are derived from strength, beauty, and job fulfillment, which are elements lacking in most older people's lives.

Furthermore, in many people the retirement syndrome begins even before retirement, adding to a feeling of uselessness. Forced retirement begins another painful cycle. Older people see retirement as the first step away from vigor. Perception of themselves change even more than they do (Murphy, 1977). Thus the role of early retirement takes a heavy toll of older citizens.

However, the most important factors in the aging process are the emotional deprivations that are experienced as a result of cultural attitudes of rejection toward the aging. These are blows to a person's self-esteem. The integrity of the mental apparatus of older people cannot endure such impoverishment with its lack of emotional gratification. It seems that the external surroundings seem to grow remote from the aging ego, the rational conscious aspect of the personality finds less and less in the outside world to which to relate itself.

To further explain problems of the aged and mental health, one must include anxiety. Old people are apt to experience helplessness. They can no longer manage on their own and their dependence on others makes them feel impotent and worthless. They might even have feelings of abandonment and rage (Burse and Pfieffer, 1977).

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What, then, can counteract all of these feelings in the personalities of the aging? Self-esteem. Schwartz (1975) has stated that the essential ingredient in positive self-regard is the maintenance of self-esteem. Self-esteem is the linchpin that holds everything else in its appropriate place.

Moreover, the individual's image or concept of himself influences the way he perceives and interacts with the world around him. There are many aspects of man's behavior that are directly correlated with his self-concept. The self-concept serves as a valid index of man's state of mental health and self-actualization. How can an elderly person with a devastated self-image build a positive self concept? Fitts (1972) suggests that the development of interpersonal communications skills might elevate self-esteem. He also maintains that self-esteem is most affected by experiences, competence, and self-actualization.

However, there is no value judgment more important to man than the estimate he passes on himself. This estimate is usually experienced by him in the form of feeling. He experiences it constantly; therefore, this self-evaluation is an important factor in man's psychology. In Branden's (1969) book on self-esteem, he emphasizes "man has a need for a positive view of himself" (p. 104). To the extent that men lack self-esteem, they feel they must "fake it," or create the illusion of self-esteem. "Self esteem has two components: an integrated sense of self-confidence and self-respect and a conviction that one is competent to live and worthy of living" (p. 105).

The concept of self-esteem pertains to a man's conviction of his fundamental efficacy and worth. It is not a value which, once achieved, is maintained effortlessly and automatically thereafter. Man maintains his metaphysical efficacy by continuing to expand his efficacy throughout his life; he must expand his knowledge, understanding, and ability. Continual intellectual growth is a necessity of self-esteem.

Theoretical framework. Elbow (1973) has created a new approach to the teaching of writing based on getting the meaning clear in one's mind and then writing. Elbow proposes that five people in a group can interact and write daily, revising what they write, and reading to one another that which they create.

In addition to being able to write better, the participants also learned to improve their inter-personal relationships with one another. The "teacherless" class in composition was an ideal laboratory in which to use the compositions to enhance the self-esteem of the students. Self-esteem is the psychological result of a sustained policy of commitment to awareness, by which is meant: a will to understand the facts of reality as they relate to one's life, actions, and needs; a respect for facts and a refusal to seek escape from facts, including the facts of one's inner experience.

Rationale. Learning a skill builds more self-esteem. Communicative skills, such as a six-week writing program, could enhance the self-esteem of the aging.

Methodology. Four groups consisted of thirty volunteers, from the home for the elderly, ages 65-75.

- a) Experimental group
- b) Control group
- c) Pre-test and post-test groups
- d) Only post-test group

The experimental group met two days a week for one hour. There were ten people, men and women, ages 65-75. Each sub-group contained five people. This experimental group used the "Elbow" method of learning to write compositions. One group had a pre-test before beginning the program; the other experimental group did not have the pre-test.

The compositions began with a session of "free" writing, followed by one session of writing on a specified subject. The third session's writing was: "Write about Writing." Thereafter, each session was composed of writing, after which the group had

an exchange of papers to read one another's writing. Afterwards, each member of the group criticizes the "piece" like this:

- 1) What color does this "piece" remind you of?
- 2) What part of the body? Why?
- 3) What musical instrument? Why?
- 4) What taste? Why?
- 5) What kind of weather does it remind you of?

On the contrary, the control group consisted of ten members who did not get any kind of new teaching methods for writing. They were taught in the traditional method. The next five people just took the pre-test and the post-test. The remaining five took the post-test. The design is formed thusly:

Experimental I	R	Y_1	X	Y_2
Control I	R	Y'_1		Y_2
Experimental II	R		X	Y''_2
Control II	R			Y''_2

The first experimental group was measured with respect to Y before it was exposed to the experimental variable; the second was not. Both received the same experimental treatment. Of the two control groups, one received the initial measure of Y at the same time as the initial measurement of the first experimental group; the other did not. All four groups were measured with respect to Y after the experimental groups have been exposed to the experimental treatment.

Procedure. Although there were many ways to assess self-concept, for reasons of economy and convenience we chose a self-administered adjective check list based on Block's 1961 Q-sort. The participants were asked if the qualities were characteristic of themselves, uncharacteristic, or neither. It was given twice, once prior to the teaching of Elbow's "teacherless writing course." Then, again we gave Block's test after the six-week Elbow writing course.

The data of the Block Q test was analyzed separately. Test 1 and Test 2 could be graded to see whether the dimensions obtained at the two points in time were comparable.

There are several ways to ascertain if the items are comparable. One of these ways proposed by Cattell and Baggaley (1960) was to simply calculate the probability that two factors would have the same high loading variables in common on the basis of change. If this probability is low, one concluded the factors were the same. The dimensions are named: personal insecurity, amiability, assertion, self control, hostility, and social poise.

Another way to compare factors is to rotate to similarity (which is to say factors considered as vectors are moved around in dimensional space until they are as similar as possible) and then examine the resulting factor structures. If the factor structures as revealed by the coefficients are the same, then the dimensions can be considered the same. Clusters can be rotated to similarity by presetting the defining variables.

The Curtis Self Concept Test could be used also. Subjects would answer 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (see sampling). Scores would be tallied by dividing by the number of questions in each group.

Analyses. Since the volunteers came from the residents of a home for the elderly, those who could read, write, see, and hear were chosen for the writing program. Of course, non-random sampling and judgment sampling procedures made the results less likely to apply to a large population of old age residents. In this study, since only

a six-week period of time elapsed, we did not see a great change. In factor analysis, however, it might happen that the dimensionality of the attribute such as the self-concept measured at one time may be different from the dimensionality identified at another.

The data gathered at two different times, based on the pre-test scores and again, on the post-test scores, could show distinct differences if one examined the factor coefficients. If they were the same, it would be understood that the dimensions would be the same. A dimension would be considered similar at the two times in proportion to the number of variables common to the dimension. The dimensions at the two times would be defined by the same variables and the correlation of each variable with the dimension would be compared at each time.

The participants looked forward to the writing and sharing sessions. Interpersonal communications flourished as each person wanted to read what he or she had written that day. Progress in writing was seen in both organization and self-expression.

Implications. The educational gerontologist or a retired teacher with certification in gerontology could make marked contributions in lifelong learning. To gainfully utilize the trained individual is a goal of lifelong learning. All participants therefore gain self esteem.

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Sampling

Self-Concept Test *

1. I think that I am better looking than most people.
2. I am always afraid that people are going to make fun of me.
3. I put off doing things.
4. I am a slow learner.
5. I am tall.

*Developed by: Dr. Leonard T. Curtis, Professor of Special Education, Georgia State University. Reprinted by permission.

LIBERAL AND LIBERATING MODELS OF COMMUNITY ADULT
EDUCATION: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Stephen Brookfield¹

Abstract

This paper attempts to clarify the nature of community adult education by exploring the differences between what can be called liberal and liberating models of community adult education. The liberal model views communities as harmonious, integrated entities and presumes that community adult educators can devise a program which satisfies the needs of all members of a community at any one time. The liberating model holds that communities are rent by divisions and inequalities of an economic, political and ethnic nature. To liberating theorists adult education becomes the arm of social action aimed at promoting the advancement of disadvantaged and minority groups.

The word "community" is one which has the power to inspire a reverential suspension of critical judgement in the minds of adult educators, social workers and those within the caring and health professions. It is as if in invoking this term adult educators thereby imbue their practice with a humanistic concern and an almost self-righteous compassion which pre-empts any considered analysis of its central features. The term functions, therefore, as a premature ultimate; that is, as a word possessing such emotional potency that its invocation immediately precludes further debate. In this respect "community" occupies a status in the adult education vocabulary similar to that of need. Declaring that one is meeting the needs of adult learners, or of one's community, has the effect of acting as a logical stop to analysis and critical scrutiny. Again, attaching the label community to an adult education program results in a mix of prescriptive and descriptive associations. To assert that one is practising community adult education is to declare that one is doing something which is innately desirable as well as to describe practice.

The popularity of the term "community" cannot be accounted for solely in terms of political expediency or as an instance of a current semantic fad. In a fascinating analysis of the meaning of the word Kirkwood has cogently summarized the reasons for its appeal as follows ...

" The word community is popular, because through it people can express this yearning for a communion with each other. It is a yearning for social wholeness, a mutuality and interrelatedness, as opposed to the alienated, fragmented, antagonistic social world of daily experience. Linked with this desire for warm relatedness is a desire for stability " (Kirkwood 1978 p.148)

To anyone familiar with the writings of nineteenth century sociologists this romantic and appealing vision of a pastoral togetherness calls to mind the distinction drawn by Tonnies between a pre-industrial *gemeinschaft* (community) and a mass urban *gesellschaft* (association) form of society.

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LIBERAL MODELS OF COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION

Colin Fletcher has summarized the difference between liberal and liberating models by recognizing that "liberal assumes that the person is 'free' and should be yet freer and more enlightened whilst liberating assumes bondage and the setting free of whole classes of persons" (Fletcher 1980 p.69). The liberal model of community adult education is based on an assumption which, as programmers will know from their own experience, is at best highly questionable and at worst practically inoperable. This assumption is that adult education can comprise a program which satisfies the needs of all members of a community at any one time. It is institution based and emphasizes delivery systems provided by some agency which exists to serve the needs of community members. Let us take three definitions which exemplify this liberal model. The first of these is that offered by professors of adult education and community education surveyed in a delphi study, a third of whom defined community education as ...

" the process of identification of community needs and the marshalling of resources to meet those needs so that the community and all its members can grow through social and educational programs " (Fellenz & Coker 1980 p.319)

A similar, though admittedly visionary definition, is that offered by Boucouvalas in an examination of the interface between lifelong learning and community education. Boucouvalas declares that ...

" the ultimate goal of community education is the development of self-guiding, self-directed communities which are able to identify and satisfy the needs of all their community members through the coordination cooperation, and collaboration of all community resources " (Boucouvalas 1979 p.35)

Finally, a pamphlet authored by a respected community educator entitled "People Helping People", which undertakes an overview of community education, includes this definition ..

" Community education encourages the development of a comprehensive and coordinated delivery system for providing educational, recreational, social and cultural services for all people in a community " (Decker 1978 p.4)

Discussion

These definitions raise unanswered questions of great importance and contain within them a number of hidden assumptions and covert value judgements. The first two definitions, for example, emphasize the identification and satisfaction of community needs and of individual needs. These may, however, be in total contradiction as when a town council, as a group elected to express popular will, decides to introduce a shopping mall in direct opposition to the wishes of a large number of local residents. The concept of community needs is also highly questionable. What are usually offered as examples of community needs tend to be one person's (whether a community developer or local politician) prescription as to the kind of community he or she considers desirable. To assert that community needs can somehow be synthesized from a number of individual felt needs is another familiar misconception. The best that one can hope for is that a community need as perceived by the educator reflects the majority preference of the inhabitants within an area.

A second problem with these three definitions is the way in which they assume that the needs of all members of a community can be met at any one time. This ignores the probability that there will be times when the community worker or educator is faced with requests for assistance from two different groups whose interests are diametrically opposed. Fostering the 'growth' (to use the delphi study term) of the members of a natural foods cooperative may be directly opposed to fostering the growth of members of the local chamber of commerce. The choice the worker or educator makes on how to use the time, money and other resources available, will reflect the worker's personal value system or the norms of his or her employing body.

A case history described to me by a former graduate student provides an apt example of the kinds of practical choices facing community workers which reflect deeper ethical dilemmas. This person was employed as a community worker in a suburb in which an application to erect a residential home for the mentally disturbed was being discussed. Several members of the local community asked the worker to assist them in opposing any application to build such an institution in their locale. According to the philosophical canons and practical injunctions contained in the three definitions previously quoted, the worker should have assisted the individuals concerned in their action. They had specified an action objective (preventing the granting of planning permission for the residential home) and were clearly expressing their need for the worker's help. In this instance, the individual concerned felt compelled to express his own support for the siting of the residential home and to refuse to "meet the needs" of several members of the community. The ethical correctness of the worker's course of action is not at issue here : what is important is that this case demonstrates that value free choices on the part of community workers are not always possible and are, indeed, a relative rarity.

LIBERATING MODELS OF COMMUNITY ADULT EDUCATION

These models are based on a notion of community which emphasizes the existence of inequities in terms of income, access to educational opportunity, and political power. Instead of acknowledging the existence of cohesive and harmonious elements in a community, writers in this tradition choose to concentrate on differences and disparities. Education, including adult education, comes to serve as a compensatory or readjustment mechanism concerned to promote the collective well being of an identified disadvantaged or disenfranchised group. The community adult educator is seen as being forced to ignore the needs of one sector (for example, landlords) in order to serve the needs of another (for example, tenants' associations). Another feature of this school of theorists is the absence of clearly immutable distinctions drawn by such writers between education, development and action. Education becomes a political act and development and action are held to be interwoven and part of a broad movement to attain social justice. Hence, as Lovett declares, "in the most important sense success will depend on the extent to which adult education contributes to the process of social change" (Lovett 1971 p.13).

As Lawson has pointed out (Lawson 1977) what Lovett means is that adult education is to be judged according to the extent to which it contributes to what he (Lovett) regards as desirable social change. If adult education is judged simply by the amount of social change it promotes - irrespective of the nature or form of such change - then the transition from an open, democratic society to a closed, hierarchical society would become a cause of celebration for adult educators. However, writers in the Lovett tradition are usually quite prepared to acknowledge that their practice is based explicitly on value systems. Again, the ethical merits of the value system chosen are, at present, irrelevant to our discussion. What is important is that there is a recognition that community educators are not functionaries, automats, or dehumanized ciphers through whom in some mystical osmotic process are channelled the desires and wishes of a coherent community. Rather, educators are seen as political creatures who are faced constantly with the need to make choices regarding the allocation of resources and whose choices reflect personal biases or institutional preferences.

Discussion

As already indicated, the criteria applied by liberating theorists to determining the success of a community adult education initiative appear to be political as much as educational. However, such writers would argue that this distinction is both artificial and untenable. To them the concept of a truly educated person is one which places political awareness and personal liberation at its core. There is, to these writers, a natural point of congruence between a raised political consciousness, a true perception of the inequities inherent in society, and a fully educated person. Such a person will be fully conscientised (to use the Freirean concept) and will express this in praxis;

that is, in some form of social or political action. Education is seen as the handmaiden of collective political action and the fully educated person is seen as the one who realizes that an educative society can only be achieved through social change. Lovett remarks, for example, that "what is required is an educational movement closely linked and committed to the existing community action" (Lovett 1978 p.47) and allies himself with the historian R.H Tawney who regarded successful adult education as linked to broader movements for social change.

The political basis of the liberating model of community education is well summarized by Lovett in an article in the international journal of adult education, CONVERGENCE. Writing as the director of a community action research project in Northern Ireland he argues that education is the arm of a community action movement which exists to promote the interests of working class adults. Although Lovett, like Freire, is careful to stress the dialogical process in education and the need to explore the private and public worlds of working class adults on their own terms, there is an implication that the end result of this dialogue will be left wing, political change.

Such a perspective is markedly in contrast to the emphasis within the liberal model of community education on the satisfaction of the needs of all members at any one time. It is also opposed to the notion that education - the planned initiation of learners into a body of knowledge or transmission of a set of skills - can be judged on its own terms, separate from its cultural context. Value free education is, to writers in this school, a contradiction in terms. All education serves either to perpetuate the majority culture and to domesticate individuals or to develop a radical consciousness. If education develops in adults a perception of the world as divided into oppressors and oppressed then, to these writers, it can be considered real and authentic. The ethical or political correctness of these views is, of course, open to question and those wishing to consider well thought out critiques of this approach might like to read the works of Lawson (1977) and Paterson (1979). What is important for our discussion is the realization by theorists of this school that practice reflects the value system and value preferences of the educator or sponsoring agency.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION PROCESSES AND POLITICAL ACTION

One of the ten myths regarding community education identified by Kerensky in a recent paper is that a good community school can be identified by the existence of a large number of out of school hours programs (Kerensky 1981 p.11). This equating of the totality of community education with the provision of adult education programs and out of hours access to school facilities, is one of the misconceptions most frequently and vigorously attacked by community educators. The basis of their villification is that a concentration on the provision of programs neglects the whole dimension of 'process' in community education. The mythical dimensions surrounding this term have been well elaborated by Warden (1979). In particular, he identifies two myths - the 'No Conflict' and the 'No Special Interest' myth - both of which were identified, though not in these exact terms, in the earlier discussion of the liberal model of community education. The 'No Conflict' myth assumes there will be a congruence of desires and perceived needs when community members are presented with an opportunity to articulate their preferences for community change. As Warden comments, conflict is bound to arise reflecting the different value systems held by groups and individuals and where no conflict of opinion is visible to community educators it is more than likely that educators and community groups are not addressing real community issues. The 'No Special Interest' myth is held by those who speak of community education process in terms solely of brotherhood and togetherness. Those who emphasize the process orientation in their community education work must recognize, however, that client groups will reflect particular ethnic, economic, social and political interests.

Warden has also directly addressed the issues of the ultimate objectives and political dimensions of community education (Warden 1980). Recognizing that viewing community education as a political act may be a 'ghastly' thought for some, he argues that it can "influence the way advantages and disadvantages are distributed among people" and

that one criterion of successful community education work which can be applied is "the degree of success of political action and involvement that has been generated within the community" (Warden 1980 p.5). Ten ways in which community education has political implications are discussed by Warden including the encouragement it gives to democratic procedures, the assistance it provides in developing community leadership, and the manner in which it highlights the need for change. He also acknowledges that community education action can reflect political biases, particularly when the agency sponsoring community education views it as a form of public relations and is not committed to giving the power to groups and individuals to define and meet their own needs. Hence, for Warden, the process orientation within community education means that "politics and political action will remain the fundamental business of community educators" (Warden 1980 p.10).

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NEIGHBORHOOD PROGRAMMING: RESPONDING TO NEEDS

by Gerri Corbin¹

Abstract

A program developer should work with neighborhood representatives to plan and implement effective continuing education/public service programming. The most important principle outlined here is that the community knows its needs. Programs must grow out of needs expressed by the target audience. The University then makes resources available to address these needs. A seven step procedure shows how to effectively involve the target audience in program planning. A five point plan insures continued response of the learning institution to the community. This paper was published in Monograph No. 2 of Practicum, a publication of the Georgia Adult Education Association.

INTRODUCTION

Good neighborhood programming must begin with a sincere interest on the part of the program development specialist in the issues, concerns, and goals of the target audience.

My involvement with neighborhoods began in the late sixties with a university outreach project for inner-city youth and their parents. It was through coordination of this venture that I discovered the recipients of such public service must determine the "when", "where," "how," and even "whether" the proposed assistance is offered. Some may fear too much control by the participant, thinking it will rob the sponsoring institution of its ownership. What ultimately happens with this approach, however, is not a giving up of power by the initiating agency but the effective promotion of a cooperation endeavor.

Over the past six years I have assisted in planning conferences and workshops for Atlanta neighborhoods. The principle learned earlier still prevails--the community knows its needs. Programs must grow out of concerns, stated by the target audience.

The university, on the other hand, has educational resources which may, if properly used, address the needs of citizens organized on the local level. Program developers should be brokers informing the community of available funding and services. At the same time, they must encourage faculty/staff involvement while matching expertise and talents with neighborhood needs and requests for training. And, of course, one should not forget that wisdom and know-how are not the exclusive property of the academy. There are many community leaders who, through empirical learning, make better trainers than the often more bookbound faculty consultant. The most ideal offering is one which combines the talents of both the professor and neighborhood spokesman. This makes for a more mutually satisfying program and helps avoid the "we/they" syndrome.

Involving the Target Audience in Planning

A target audience should be involved from the beginning in program planning and have a strong decision-making role in its development. One must start with the basic question: "Is this conference or workshop necessary?"

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It requires real detachment for a program developer to risk losing an offering at this point, if, in fact, the target audience representatives answer, "no". This factor is especially true if the idea has originated with the program developer. The risk is worth taking, however, because if the clients sense that the initiating agent is willing to respect their wishes, they are less likely to feel exploited and will claim ownership of the program.

The above is especially true with neighborhoods, for though we have come a long way toward overcoming the "town and gown" partage, residual effects still remain. The university must show a sincere respect for the community in order to win its cooperation.

The following steps assure successful involvement of the audience in program planning for neighborhoods:

- (1) Find out who best represents the groups to be served. You may have to make several contacts before deciding who the designated neighborhood leader/representative(s) are. The important thing is to let the group know that you have researched carefully in an effort to involve them as early as possible in planning.
- (2) If you offer the program for more than one neighborhood or sector, make sure you invite representatives from all areas to your FIRST planning committee meeting. Each group should feel that their ideas, interest, and commitment are needed. Leaving a group out of the initial meeting and inviting them to a later one can lead them to believe that they were included as an afterthought and are therefore not important to you.
- (3) Let as many representatives as possible share in the decisions about when and where the first and subsequent planning meetings will be held. This gives a sense of ownership and inspires cooperation and support.
- (4) Be prepared at your first meeting to let the group decide whether the program will be helpful. If not, what kind of offering would be? Ask if there are any alterations in your proposed plan which would make it more suitable.
- (5) Let the committee decide with you when and where the program will be held.
- (6) Ask for suggestions about the best presenters, consultants, lecturers, panelists, etc. We are assuming here that the group has accepted the proposed topic(s) and they know some of the "experts". Do not be too quick to suggest a faculty or staff from your own institution. Let the committee know that you respect their preferences over your own people. Use neighborhood representatives as speakers and panelists whenever possible.
- (7) The date(s), length, and format of the program should be those which are most comfortable for the target audience. Committee members will know best what suits them. They can also tell you about conflicting events already on their calendars.

Responding to Changing Needs

Neighborhoods are evolving entities. Like organisms, they remain vital and grow or they stagnate and die. Those that wish to live produce leaders who organize and inspire local residents to work toward goals of preservation and enhancement. Once organized, a community begins to assess its needs for survival and improvement. Successful groups experience cycles of accomplishment, often on an annual basis. The first year's objective for instance, might be a higher level of participation by citizens in the same organization. During the second year promotion and aesthetic improvements might be the priority. Or there may be more immediate concerns plaguing the community such as better traffic signals, more commercial facilities, better recreation, etc. Whatever the needs, they do change over time as goals are met and problems are solved.

Good programming takes the above into account. At Georgia State University we offered for some four successive years a series called Atlanta Conference on Neighborhood Planning. The programs were held twice a year in last September and early February. The challenge each time was to address the most timely issues for neighborhoods citywide, while also offering workshops or sessions which provided information for newcomers as well as more experienced participants. Some needed training in the basics of organizing and leadership, while others wished to explore more sophisticated issues like how to influence government policy or promote historic preservation. We were able to assure the relevance of topics by forming each year a planning committee consisting of neighborhood representatives from each quadrant of the city, planning officials, and GSU professors. Persons from each of these groups were also selected as speakers, panelists, etc. for the programs. We always attempted to have a balanced cross-section of professors and community leaders, men and women, blacks and whites, northsiders and southsiders, and so on. This gave a sense of common ownership and camaraderie.

The following are some ways to insure the effective response of your institution to changing needs in neighborhood programming:

- (1) Have the planning committee meet after each conference for an evaluation of the program. At this meeting, ask whether a follow-up conference will be helpful. You may also like to determine the frequency with which such conferences could be held, e. g., monthly, annually, etc.
- (2) If a follow-up conference is advisable you will want to have the committee suggest a date, topic, and speakers. It is important that as many of these decisions as possible be made by target audience representatives.
- (3) For on-going programs held less frequently, (e. g. annually), choose topics no more than four months in advance. Neighborhood issues often develop seasonably; many concerns that are important today may already have been adequately addressed six months from now. Even a group planning neighborhood programs six months apart may find that allowing a month or two after each session before firming up the next program's content will make for more relevant programs.
- (4) Be willing to end a series when it is no longer in demand. We all have a tendency to "institutionize" successful regularly planned events. If after a number of sessions attendance begins to decline and interest lags, let the committee know that they have the right to end the series.
- (5) Encourage neighborhood leaders to approach you at any time with new program ideas. If they know you are willing to help them address community problems with meaningful workshops, you will become one of their principal contacts when concerns arise.

A Cooperative Venture: Learning and Growing Together

When a program developer works with a particular group over a period of years, the developer learns continually about the group's frame of reference, values, concerns, etc. Soon a program developer may begin to identify with the issues and relate so well that he or she alone may feel capable of representing the group. Wearing two-hats in this way is not to be recommended, however. A program development specialist should keep roles separated. If he or she happens to be active with a neighborhood group, it is best when planning workshops on community issues to include other neighborhood representatives on the advisory committee. Though the developer may well understand the needs of the interest group, as a university agent, he or she should remain in the role of liaison as much as possible and let others present the community's point of view. In the long-run this will lend much more credibility to the requests that will be forth coming from the various neighborhoods involved.

Given proper communications and programming, a growth process takes place among

the neighborhood representatives, university staff, and city personnel. All sectors learn to understand each other and relate more easily. Sensitivities develop so that each group comes to know the other's capabilities and constraints. A trust level builds and the groups begin to rely on each other in ways not previously foreseen. Neighborhoods learn that the academy and city government can and do wish to address their problems. City officials look to neighborhoods for advice on ways to implement projects, and the university learns, in a more direct way, many principles which had previously been theories.

At this point, it becomes quite natural for the community to look to the university when it needs to "know" or "study" something, while the university turns to the community as a laboratory when it wants to "practice" something. Each setting is given equal value, and the two groups develop mutual respect.

Assuming successful programming, the program developer acquires over time an identity with the neighborhood representatives. They view him or her as part of their group and as a resource person to whom they may turn when training and additional information are needed. For example, community leaders have felt comfortable enough to approach our university to ask for assistance in developing workshops on leadership, a sure sign that real trust has been established. Leadership is a very sensitive topic. When neighborhood representatives seek help in this area, they usually ask persons they know will not make the mistake of "talk down" to them.

Benefits to the University and the Community

Both the university and the community benefit from public service programming designed for neighborhoods. Often students can assist with the administrative and logistical aspects of the conferences. They are thus able to test and apply many of the ideas discussed in the classroom setting. This opportunity provides valuable experience which can help them on future jobs. Indeed, many students who have worked on our programs have later acquired employment with city agencies, because they had done so well at organized conferences.

It is good to employ student assistants for program development whenever possible. Some of our most innovative ideas have originated with students. On one occasion a survey on attitudes about Atlanta's twenty-four neighborhood planning units was designed and conducted by a graduate assistant. The results were significant enough that it became the basis for one of our conference seminars.

Faculty members also benefit from serving on planning committees and applying what is often theoretical knowledge in a practical setting. For example, professors are often able to publish articles after working with neighborhood groups. They usually encourage students to attend the larger conferences, and, as teachers, use insight gained from such community service in classroom presentations.

If workshops are relevant and helpful, the university begins to develop a reputation of involvement and caring. It may thus attract students who wish to identify with urban issues and the development of more viable neighborhoods. Community leaders themselves may return to take additional courses or acquire further degrees. None of this can hurt the image of the academy.

The community being the recipient of the educational service should benefit directly if the program offerings meet their objectives. Continuing education is not just for professional groups but for everyone with a mind to learn and questions to be answered. As more knowledge is gained and problems solved, neighborhood participants develop a respect for the power of ideas and the ability of institutions and groups to work together. They are not alone with their concerns but part of a team working to make America's cities better places in which to live and learn.

UNDERSTANDING THE NATURE OF WORKING CLASS
LEARNERS: A CHALLENGE FOR ADULT EDUCATION

Wendy Luttrell¹

Abstract

Educators need to better understand the nature of working class, women, and minority adult students. The diversity in students' experiences in work, families, and communities and the way it affects their learning process is too often overlooked. This paper analyzes the educational histories and experiences of fifteen adult white women students and explores the roots of these women's common attitudes about education which are based on their shared cultural experiences as working class women. A framework for understanding both the strengths and constraints of these students is proposed, and some guidelines are presented for incorporating these insights into learner-centered adult education.

As learner-centered educators, we often shy away from differences among students, focusing on their similarities as adult learners. But in terms of more fully understanding adults as learners, we are much in need of an exploration of how class, race, and cultural differences among men and women affect their education. The majority research that we have about adults in education is based on white middle class students, and does not adequately examine the constraints and the potentials of working class and minority people. The central unanswered questions are: How do different adults experience school? How do different experiences in work, families, and communities affect a students' learning process?

This paper is based on the author's experiences teaching and doing research at the Lutheran Settlement House Women's Program, a community based educational program in Philadelphia. The program serves predominantly white ethnic working class women in the vicinity of the Settlement House and reaches out to black and hispanic women in neighboring communities. The program is based in Kensington, a once stable and vibrant ethnic community which is now plagued by the problems of urban decay; plant closures causing drastic increases in unemployment; deteriorating housing, an inferior educational system; and inadequate support services for residents who must deal with rapid changes in their lives. In the context of this community in flux, a multi-faceted approach to community based education has evolved over the past seven years at the Women's Program. The goal of this program is to empower women through education, personal support, and employment counselling to achieve their individual goals and to take an active role in the community around them.

This paper explores the educational histories and current experiences of fifteen women who have participated in the program. Based on in-depth interviews, the author examines how these students described and analyzed their experiences in school, and how these experiences affected or were affected by other circumstances in their lives. The women interviewed shared similar circumstances. They had all grown up in Kensington; they were all white, all mothers; all between the ages of 22-45, and were all predominantly third generation of Irish and Polish decent. However, they also had some different characteristics. Some women went

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to Catholic schools while others went to public schools; half were married, half were single heads of households, and they all had a wide range of skill levels and educational attainment--some were General Education Diploma students, some were college preparatory students and some were community college students in the Women's Program. Despite the variety and individuality of each woman's experiences, the paper discusses a series of common responses images, feelings--what some people might call consciousness--that these women had about their education and its role in their lives. The paper examines the roots of these shared responses and suggests a framework for better understanding the nature of adult working class women learners. The paper also discusses the implications of these research findings for learner-centered adult education.

Current literature dealing with white working class women's experiences in schools (not to mention their experiences in families, communities, or workplaces) is very limited. At best, white working class women are described as strong survivors, despite many hardships and limited resources (Budin, 1976, Seifer, 1973, Sidel, 1978); and at worst, they are described (mostly by men) as conservative, bigoted, and generally uninteresting. This is especially true for a study called Whitetown, USA, by Peter Binzen (1970), about the same neighborhood where the Lutheran Settlement House Women's Program is located which local residents find more than insulting. In the literature on working class culture that falls in between, women are generally left out of the picture as in two books that are extremely important and insightful about working class men's educational experiences and working class culture: Sennett and Cobb's The Hidden Injuries of Class (1973) and Learning to Labour, by Paul Willis (1977). The best lesson that can be gleaned from the literature is that adult educators are in need of a rich depiction of white working class women, one that is complicated, contradictory and accounts for the wide range of responses that was found among students in Kensington.

The paper attempts to capture the full range of these women's experiences as actors shaping their own education, as well as prisoners of a system that has robbed them of meaningful participation. The author begins by analyzing the competing images, responses and feelings that women shared about their achievement in school. Many women explained that they did not achieve because of the nature of the school--it was "too boring", "too tough", or "too rigid". Women also blamed other circumstances beyond their control, such as conflicting family responsibilities or financial constraints, which affected their school performance. While the women interviewed consistently discussed external constraints which determined their school experiences, they simultaneously explained why they did not achieve because of their own attitudes. Throughout all the interviews, women juxtaposed two dissonant explanations--how they were cheated out of an education in different ways, but also how they didn't try hard enough to get the kind of education they wanted. In this way, they all ended up both blaming society--teachers, schools, families--and blaming themselves. This same pattern re-emerges when women discuss intelligence--their various images of what intelligence is and how it develops--and educational aspirations--their various images of higher education and its role in their lives. The persistent theme throughout all the interviews is that while these women describe themselves as actors in their own lives, they also accept personal failure and blame for circumstances beyond their control. The paper attempts to unpack this shared consciousness by exploring the roots of these students' experiences--within the American educational system, the American class structure, and within working class culture itself. The quality and ambivalence women expressed permeates all aspects of their lives--in their families, their work, and in their community, but it was especially acute in terms of education. The paper specifically looks at the American educational system and how it fosters inequality while simultaneously perpetuating an ideology that education is a ticket for social mobility.

In order to avoid a one-sided analysis of contemporary American schooling and the ideology of education as a system which totally dominated people, the paper suggests an alternative framework for viewing the full range of people's contradictory experiences in schools. First, the paper argues that the American educational system is not a monolithic, unchanging institution. It is also an arena of struggle between all the players. The stage--the American classroom--is hardly a programmed setting. Teachers, students, parents,

and administrators all battle over conflicting values about achievement, success and merit--constantly challenging the final mold of the socialization process. This can clearly be seen in the ambivalence and dissonance expressed by the women interviewed. They have all refused to be molded with a consistent, coherent, one-sided picture of how the world works, which leaves big cracks and questions about the institution of education which dominates our lives.

Second, the shared contradictory images, responses, and feelings that the women expressed, have roots in a common set of resources, a heritage, a culture or set of life experiences which help them "get by" in a world which is not designed to meet their needs. The paper draws on the work of Paulo Freire, a Brazilian educator and organizer, to discuss this ability of people to survive despite their oppression. The shared concerns and consciousness of the women interviewed are examined as both sources of resistance to the system which oppresses them and sources of compliance, acceptance, or self-blame for this very system.

Finally, the paper suggests some implication of this alternative framework for understanding the nature of working class women learners and the educational system they must deal with. A striking lesson learned from the women interviewed was that their educational experiences had been a key spoke in affecting how they thought about a wide range of other issues, such as marriage, parenting, and even social change. For learner centered educators, who are interested in making educational experiences more empowering to students, the paper suggests three important guidelines to work a Jund.

1. First and foremost, is the recognition that there are significant differences among adults that are rooted in their class and cultural experiences. These differences are not something that can be ignored or minimized in the classroom, but instead should be resources for learning and a key vehicle for increasing our effectiveness as adult educators.

2. The real work of recognizing the building on students' differences must begin by challenging traditional methods of education which reinforce unequal class relations. This requires changes at many different levels of the American education system--within curriculum materials, evaluation methods, placement, testing, classroom structure, etc. But at its most basic level, it requires changes in student teacher relationships, changes in traditional authority relations which may be comfortable for both students and teachers--especially adult students who have often been crippled by rigid, authoritarian school structures which have robbed them of a belief in their own intelligence and ability to learn. Replacing these relationships with more equality and mutual respect means that we must break down old dichotomies between teaching and learning, theory and practice, learning knowledge vs. creating knowledge together which can only happen if we are aware of and appreciate the cultural and class strengths as well as the constraints of adult students.

3. Finally, white middle class teachers who are in a sense seen as providers of the ticket for upward mobility through education, must actively combat the prevailing ideology of American education. We must challenge this myth within the materials and issues we choose to discuss in class and within the new relations we struggle to establish with adult students. To not do so would continue a dangerous cycle of "blaming the victim" and foster self-blame.

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A STUDY OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION

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Abstract

The sample includes 20 out-of-school approaches and subapproaches to education: self-help groups, appropriated technology, nonformal education, quality of worklife movement, museum education, adult basic and continuing education, community education and development, etc. The data in each essay is examined using content analysis concerning these lenses: definitions and descriptions, pervasive themes, learning theories, social change theories, delivery of educational variables. Detailed findings were made, with general findings that nonschool educational settings are highly diverse in their educational characteristics, but not random. Several implications for practitioners are discussed.

THE RATIONALE

All of the education occurring in any society can be conceptualized as a system of schools are only one part. The largest part of this system consists of informal settings, including the home, neighborhood, or peer group, where major skills such as languages, interpersonal behavior and survival strategies are acquired through a complex of unorganized but highly effective teaching-learning interactions.

The second largest part of this system includes nonformal settings like churches, scout groups, self-help groups, businesses, government agencies, libraries, unions and similar groups. Any nonformal educational group is organized, is designed to make an intentional effort to influence people, and is responsible for much of the learning that fills specific needs. People learn job skills at work, health maintenance from doctors and clinics, legal skills from lawyers, sports skills from being on teams, and psychological skills from counseling clinics and support groups.

The smallest part of the educational system is the formal school system, the component responsible for teaching basic symbol systems, for fostering abstract thinking, and for conserving the culture. Through the formal system, we learn to read, write, and compute; to read music and program computers; to think logically and critically; and to articulate the basic beliefs of our culture. The construction of new knowledge has much of its basis in this part of the educational system.

During the last decade, some exciting reformations of educational theory have taken place, most commonly using the terms "lifelong learning" or "the learning society". Related ideas may be found in the fields of non-formal education, continuing education and community education. The most important concepts developed by these schools of thought are: (1) that learning occurs throughout the lifespan; (2) that learning occurs in non-formal and informal settings; and (3) that learning is a function of organizations, as well as of individuals.

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This study concentrates on the many approaches found in the non-formal part of the educational system. All of them are organized and they represent open, intentional efforts to improve the quality of life through influencing individuals and organizations. Some of these approaches have a long and rich history: the museums, human services and adult evening programs come to mind. Others are more recent: community development, appropriate technology projects and self-help groups are examples. Some look more like educational settings because, like schools, they are aimed at individual development. Others, however, like legal education and community development approaches, represent collective or organizational efforts aimed more usually at economic or social development.

Altogether, 20 approaches and sub-approaches were chosen for detailed study here. The data for this study have been collected over a three-year period by researchers with considerable background in their respective approach. Each researcher reviewed the literature and other resources in his/her field, selecting a number of the most significant for annotation. A summary of each of these sources was then prepared as well as a precise description of the contents, using the following set of concepts or lenses.

COMPONENTS USED FOR ANALYSIS

Definition of Approaches

This involved clarifying and describing each of the 20 approaches and sub-approaches, with an emphasis on economics, social and personal qualities.

Pervasive Themes

Themes refer to an issue, a concern, a piece of rhetoric, and/or a topic which is regularly mentioned or discussed.

Theoretical Component

Social change theory concepts included: (a) object of change, individual or group; (b) sources of change, top-down or bottom-up; (c) type of change, evolutionary or basic change. Learning theory concepts included: (a) authority, external or internal; (b) level of reduction, incremental or Gestalt.

Delivery Variables

There are 11 educational variables that have an implementing emphasis: objectives, content and sequences, time units, learners, staff, teaching-learning approaches, rewards and evaluation, curriculum materials and resources, financial resources, building resources, power-control-administration factors.

The analysis of the data integrating the variables and concepts of the four components or lenses, for each approach and across all approaches, provides a coherent framework for understanding, studying and implementing out-of-school education.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology developed here has the value of wide applicability across fields. The four components are basic to all educational approaches and are easily translated into distinctive terminology. Additionally, the four components represent a balance of inductive and deductive approaches combining the benefits of both the intuitive and the rational. Together they provide a coherent way to explore the fascinating and highly diverse field of out-of-school education.

The processing and integrating of the large amount of information in the essays was greatly facilitated by the fact that the writers developed the essays using the same

general guidelines consisting of the four components. The first step in the analysis was to abstract from the essays a short description of each approach and any sub-approaches. The next step was the identification of a set of constructs that help classify the pervasive themes: economic emphasis, social emphasis, and personal emphasis. The third step was the development of generalized, contrasting views of social change theories and of learning theories.

The analysis of the data from the delivery variables involved coding the 20 approaches on each of the 11 variables, using a diagnostic instrument called the Lifelong Learning Scale.

Similarities, differences, collations and relationships among the 20 approaches and across pairs of variables were made by using simple matrices. These matrices serve to organize and classify the data so that observations could be made concerning the several questions posed by the study.

The inclusion and exclusion of out-of-school approaches used in this study are not intended to convey value judgments as to the relative social importance. We have attempted to cast a net that captures many of the basic questions that are of interest to theorists and practitioners. The "net" is potentially of as much interest to researchers and practitioners as are the results of its application here. One of the major difficulties in the field is its extreme fragmentation. Though an extraordinary amount of creative education occurs daily, it is rare for a practitioner in one field to have any knowledge of innovations elsewhere. Even the terminology varies tremendously so that it is difficult for potential teachers (facilitators, trainers, etc.) to talk to each other across fields, much less from one another.

THE FINDINGS

Where does out-of-school education occur? Two major conclusions emerge from an initial examination of this question. The first is that it is, to a greater or lesser degree, part of every organization's function. All organizations must train their own members and a great number educate as part of their overall function and/or use educational techniques as part of major change efforts. The second conclusion is that a significant majority of the education occurring outside of schools is highly integrated into other purposes and activities of the organizations. This integration is a primary difference between these approaches and schools. While this difference makes out-of-school education quite difficult to study, it nonetheless is a major factor in eliminating some of the more persistent problems facing professional school people.

Definitions of Out-Of-School Education

Two major observations merge when one examines the effort of each educational approach to define itself. The first is that there is a distinct tendency toward differentiation. Many approaches quickly multiply into an array of distinct settings, and those that did not were already very small components of a larger field composed of many subsets. Secondly, the distinctions within a field often involve a difference in overall goals. As goals shifted within a field, the approach become so different that it could no longer be seen as similar enough to warrant a common definition.

Pervasive Themes

In another effort to generate basic characteristics about non-school education, each researcher was asked to describe major concerns or issues which are frequently discussed by both practitioners and commentators in their field. The purpose of the request was to generate a list of important themes in order to see if there were any broad concerns which occur across the field. Themes that were of broad interest in turn might provide further clues about the more general nature of non-school education.

The themes that received wide mention across approaches were economic development, empowerment, human potential, sense of community, linkages, and culture conservation. If one looks at these pervasive themes as a whole, what one discovers are some quite common aspirations. The pervasive themes that recur most frequently across approaches are the individual and collective hopes of participants. What is reinforced again is the basic characteristic of out-of-school education as being a means to other ends, as being a vehicle for people to work towards some very basic and understandable goals. Out-of-school education in this sense is very functional; equally important it is idealistic, optimistic, and a way of accomplishing some very important life goals.

Learning Theory

An exploration of two basic questions about how learning best occurs yields some interesting propositions about major characteristics of out-of-school education. The first is that the majority of approaches make different assumptions than do schools about how learning most effectively occurs. They are much more likely to see learning as holistic; as physical and emotional as well as cognitive; and rarely spend much effort in carefully sequencing the process. In addition, they are more likely to put energy into methods which rely largely on internal sources of authority. Learning when it is investigated in non-school settings seems to occur in some fundamentally different ways, and is at the heart of some very basic conflicts in beliefs about how individuals and societies change.

Social Change Theory

There are four groupings of the 20 approaches that share similar positions about the objects, directions and nature of social change. One group is school-like (such as adult basic education) and share a reliance on experts, are basically conservative in nature, and are top-down models. A second group has a leisure time character (such as museums) and is individualistic in emphasis, top-down models, and has relatively little interest in social change. The third group has a bottom-up change approach (such as local community development settings), and put a strong emphasis on issues of empowerment and equity. They see a need for structural changes in society; with a collective rather than individualistic focus. The fourth group has a national level, top-down set of characteristics, and tends towards a gradual rather than radical restructuring of social structures.

Defining Variables

The 11 delivery variables were studied across all approaches, using the formal-nonformal continuum of the Lifelong Learning Scale. A close analysis suggests that there are many quite distinct ways of delivering out-of-school education, yet there are a number of definite patterns which occur widely in the field. The latter include the tendency of non-school approaches to have nonformal goals, methods and reward systems and to be relatively open in selecting learners. People seeking educational experiences out-of-school tend to have quite immediate needs, and they prefer active, participatory methods. This tendency of non-school approaches to be less formal than schools is not supported on other variables, specifically on organizational, staffing and resources variables.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The basic conclusion that is reinforced is the idea that the field is highly diverse but not random. Education beyond schools is characterized by its immense variety. On the other hand, each of the lenses employed here uncovered some generalizations that were strongly enough supported to warrant further study.

The generalizations that received strong support from a number of approaches include the following:

- Out-of-school education is a very common organizational function which is usually highly integrated with other purposes and functions.
- Pervasive themes that can be found in a wide variety of approaches most often concern very basic human aspirations.
- Most approaches see learning as a holistic rather than incremental approach and the majority rely on internal sources of authority for learning.
- Out-of-school educational approaches tended to be nonformal in their selection of objectives, content, learners, methods, rewards and use of time. However, they were very mixed in their choice of organizational, staffing and funding patterns.

Implications for Practitioners

One example of the many that could be discussed concerning practical applications involves the choice of organizational structure for non-school approaches. The research indicates that there is a much greater tendency to choose nontraditional goals and methodologies than there is to vary a structure (e.g., staffing pattern, financing and organizational structure). Clearly, practitioners need to see these latter items as components capable of being varied to meet their needs, not as simply given.

Another implication of the research indicates to practitioners that they should acquaint themselves with their counterpart in other fields. There is a rich potential for cross fertilization which has been barely tapped in the few studies available. The many detailed explorations which provide the data for the study described here offer practitioners a chance to explore alternatives, to see how others have struggled with some of the same alternatives and to discover new ideas.

The Impact of Returning Women on Family Role Congruence

Mary J. Stephenson¹
Gene C. Whaples

Abstract

This paper seeks to explore role performance in families when the wife has assumed the additional role of returning student. The study examines the family role performance when the wife is a student, wage earner or a full-time homemaker. The research is based on the choice and exchange theory and past investigations into role prescription and marital control.

Since the 1960's, about the time The Feminine Mystique (Friedan, 1963) enlightened society regarding the female identity, family role performance has been in a state of transformation. Prior to that time, roles were clearly defined with the husband-father providing the economic support for the family. In turn, the wife-mother provided the family with social and emotional support. Currently, about one-fourth of American families encompass such traditional households.

A trend is developing toward sharing roles within the family, with more women taking paid employment out of the home and more men helping with child care and housekeeping. Numerous studies have been conducted to compare family role performance when a housewife is gainfully employed with role performance when a housewife is a full-time homemaker.

At the same time that more women are choosing employment more women are also pursuing an education. As the number of homemakers seeking education increases, statistics indicate that married women of all ages comprise a large portion of college students. Few studies have given attention to the multiple roles these women undertake or to their affect on family interactions and expectations (Rice, 1979).

This paper seeks to explore role performance in families when the wife has assumed the additional role of returning student. The study examines the family role performance when the wife is a student, wage earner or a full-time homemaker. The research is based on the choice and exchange theory and past investigations into role prescription and marital control.

METHOD

Instrument

Each subject (N=237) was asked to complete independently an extensive questionnaire developed by Nye and Gecas (1976) for the purpose of measuring family role behavior. Eight family role responsibilities were tested: provider, housekeeper, kinship, recreation, preschool child care, socialization of children ages 6-12 years, therapeutic, and sexual. Likert-type items were used to determine role prescription and marital control. The role responsibilities were measured with the following questions:

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- Who should assume responsibility for the following activities?
- How do you and your spouse share tasks?
- Please indicate whether you find the following ways of sharing family responsibility attractive or unattractive.
- Indicate how important or unimportant it is that you take part in the activity assuming that if you didn't do it, someone else would do the task for you.
- How often (if ever) have you and your spouse disagreed about each of the following activities?
- Who makes (or made, if you no longer do it) most of the decisions with respect to each of these activities?
- Who makes the final decision if there is a disagreement?

Demographic data were gathered. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, the chi square test for relation, and Cramer's V statistic as a measure of strength of relationship.

RESULTS

Role Prescription

The data indicate a departure from traditional role sharing with an emphasis on egalitarian role sharing although the three family types differ in the degree of egalitarian role change. All families types are likely to indicate a desire for egalitarian role prescription whereas actual enactment of roles remains somewhat traditional. This was suggested from over 32% of the respondents who stated that the husband and wife ought to each contribute the same income, while in actuality only 13.5% of the families have a husband and wife providing the same income. The housekeeper role mirrors a similar pattern as 36.5% of the families stated that husbands and wives ought to share equally in housework but only 20% actually do share tasks equally.

The socialization of boys and girls age 6-12 years was the role that was most likely to be shared. Over 65% of the respondents indicated that husband and wife should equally discipline, teach acceptable behavior and help schoolage children with their problems. At least half of the husbands and wives, for all family types, stated that they did equally share this responsibility.

A traditional role pattern was evident for the remaining role responsibilities. The husband was mainly responsible for earning the income and the wife was responsible for the home and pre-school child rearing activities though they felt roles should be shared equally. The chi square test of approval of traditional family roles suggested the homemaker marital pair is the least approving of an equal sharing of roles. The wageearner family falls between the homemaker and student type families (see Table 1).

Marital Control

The spouse with primary responsibility for a role controls that role, and when differences develop concerning that role these differences are likely to be resolved in his or her favor.

The roles specified to be most important to the respondents pertained to child care and socialization. The role specified across families as least important was the housekeeper role though this role is more important to the homemaker family than to other family types. The provider role is less important to the homemaker family than to other family types. The therapeutic and sexual role were quite important among all family types. No relationship was found between role importance and disagreement about role responsibility (see Table 2).

Spousal disagreement was greatest for the housekeeper role except for the homemaker family. The sexual role was the source of the most disagreement for that family type. The least spousal disagreement related to the provider role. The task of socializing boys

TABLE 1
ASSOCIATION BETWEEN TRADITIONAL FAMILY CHOICE
AND
THREE TYPES OF FAMILY 1961

Husbands are entirely responsible for earning the living, wives take care of the home and small children.						
Family Type	Strongly Approve	Approve	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Disapprove	Strongly Disapprove	TOTAL
Student Family	4 (1.6%)	49 (19.5%)	78 (31.1%)	63 (25.1%)	57 (22.7%)	251 (100.0%)
Wageearner	6 (5.1%)	21 (20.0%)	36 (30.8%)	41 (35.0%)	13 (11.1%)	117 (100.0%)
Homemaker Family	14 (14.4%)	38 (39.2%)	25 (25.8%)	16 (16.5%)	4 (4.1%)	97 (100.0%)
TOTAL	24 (5.2%)	108 (23.2%)	139 (29.9%)	120 (25.8%)	74 (15.9%)	465 (100.0%)

TABLE 2
IMPORTANCE OF EIGHT FAMILY ROLE RESPONSIBILITIES
BY REPORT OF FAMILY TYPE
(Medians)

Roles Tested	Family Type			
	Student	Wage Earner	Home Maker	All Families
Provider Role	4.29	4.15	3.73	4.17
Housekeeper Role	2.87	2.90	3.03	2.91
Kinship Role	3.34	3.47	3.16	3.33
Recreation Role	3.47	3.44	3.46	3.46
Preschool Child Care Role	4.47	4.34	4.49	4.50
Socialization Role	4.62	4.66	4.68	4.64
Therapeutic Role	4.54	4.32	4.32	4.44
Sexual Role	4.45	4.48	4.20	4.40

Note. Using median scores, 5= very important, 4= quite important, 3= some importance, 2= little importance, 1= prefer not to do it.

Data collected from 237 marital pairs: 128 ST, 60 WE, 49 HM.
Total N = 474.

and girls was a higher source of disagreement for the student and wageearner families than other tasks with the exception of the aforementioned housekeeper role. It should be noted that there was an overall lack of disagreement among all family types. Medians ranged from 1.98 to 2.61 using scores of 1= never disagree to 5= disagree frequently.

The person responsible for a role does make the final decision regarding that role, though to varying degrees among the three family types. The data indicate a rather traditional decision-making pattern with the husband more likely to make the decisions relating to the provider and sexual roles while the wife is more responsible for decisions regarding the housekeeper and preschool childcare roles. She is also more responsible for decisions relating to the socialization of children, the kinship and recreational activities though to a less degree. The homemaker family is the most traditional.

The relationship between the spouse responsible for a role and the final decision when there is a disagreement regarding that role is the strongest, overall, for the wageearner family and the weakest for the homemaker family.

DISCUSSION

Though there is evidence of a desire to change, roles are fairly traditionally enacted. In many instances the wife has assumed the male orientated role of provider although the data reveal this role remains traditionally male. When wives share in the provider role one would assume that the husband would share in the housekeeping and child care roles. This is not the case. Wageearner wives retain primary responsibility for care of the home and children.

The housekeeper role was found to be the source of most disagreement in spite of the fact that it was considered the least important role among family types. Hartmann (1981) finds good reason for this as she discusses the need for more role sharing tasks within the home when the wife assumes a role outside the home. Though this role is unimportant it is obvious that someone must do the work entailed. Many men are intellectually committed to seeing their own wives in careers or returning to school, that is spending time doing meaningful, significant things, but at the same time they don't want their lives altered. They want the children cared for by wives and the dinner on the table when they come home. The division of labor tends to benefit men. Applying the basic principle of the choice and exchange theory (rewards) one might assume that until the wife can bring equal income into the family she will not be rewarded with an equal sharing of family role responsibilities by her spouse.

In this study it was found that the spouse who performs a task is more likely to make decisions with respect to its enactment than the spouse who doesn't perform the task. This substantiates the choice and exchange theory in that humans expect rewards proportionate to their investment. Nye (1980) states: "Assuming power is a reward, then the person who performs the role (has the investment) is accorded the power to make the role decisions (the rewards)" (p.483). The choice and exchange theory proposes that in the family most role enactment affects both spouses. The more important a role is to a spouse the more they will insist on making or sharing decisions with respect to the enactment of the role (Nye, 1980). This proposition was partially supported in this study.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings in this study point to specific policy implications for governmental agencies, educational systems, the labor force, places of worship, and other institutional units which constitute the societal environment within which families operate. Issues to address include the need for:

- Child care tax credit for individuals in job market training.
- Tax deductions for all career orientated educational expenses.
- A change in religious doctrine which enforces the traditional division of household labor typical of biblical times.
- Campus supported day care centers at all colleges.
- College courses designed to facilitate the additional role of returning student on family life.
- College courses on effective time management in families.

The stress and conflict that results from family role transition needs to be dealt with at all levels.

The relations between the sexes within the marital pair are dynamic, not static nor deterministic. In the words of a male respondent:

Our marriage has been placed under tremendous strain by the 'women's lib' movement because it has made my wife feel she must have her own career. Otherwise she would not feel fulfilled. Now both of us are pursuing our separate careers. Since these careers are the most important aspects of our lives -- next to our children -- we are having increasing difficulty in maintaining communication and a feeling of deep mutuality necessary to sustain our marriage. After the children leave home, we may drift apart. We would probably be separated or divorced by now if it weren't for them.

In the words of the male respondent's wife:

A lot more social awareness needs to be developed regarding liberating married women from guilt and feeling trapped in hard-edged roles. It is time society stopped deifying the roles of wife and mother as the loftiest for women today.

The first step in role transition is awareness. The second step is the recognition that the situation can change. Change often brings stress and strain. The more anticipatory socialization there is about a role, the greater the ease of transition into that role.

Our present family structure rests upon the unequal division of labor by gender which creates tension, conflict, and change. Educators, practitioners, and policy makers must address the issues troubling these families in order to create equity in marital roles.

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Abstract

The passing of the emotion-charged sixties and our survival of a sudden return to conservatism has perhaps provided the setting for a more reasoned and less impetuous consideration of what education should be about. This involves a return to the definition of one's epistemology, and a consideration of the implications of the epistemology one chooses. This author defends a phenomenological approach to epistemology, and argues that knowledge is determined as much by the nature of perception, concept formation, and meaning, as by the characteristics of the physical world, or of physical events. This implies that changes of a cognitive nature can actually change the definition of the world in which we live. This hypothesis is applied to the re-education of inmates in the schools of Canada's federal penitentiaries. An experimental program of cognitive education (Instrumental Enrichment) evoked strong and positive responses from both staff and students.

A Return to Phenomenological Approaches

Now that the impetuous rush of the sixties has faded behind the sudden nostalgia for the fifties, the eighties can get on about their business in some semblance of seriousness. With the settling of some dust it becomes apparent that the excessive euphoria of believing that the discovery of some final "answer" was just beyond our grasp was no more realistic than the crushing disappointment when the gas seemed to run out of things. The eighties can be the time of solid growth, benefitting from the wisdom of hindsight. We can no longer hope for instant, miraculous solutions to the problems of being and of learning, but neither can we think that the failure to find them will be disastrous.

It is time for a return to the examination of our epistemology. (We have the time for such esoterica, now.) We should have learned that it indeed does matter how we begin; what our theoretical basis is. We are finished with gurus, and pop cults of many-colored cloths. We still care about "Learning to Be", and we are still impressed that man has actually walked on the moon, but now that a new seriousness has come over the halls of academia, we realize that we still need to know what learning itself is all about. We want to get into the inner workings of our discipline; our educationism; our theories of learning.

I have returned to my phenomenological roots; to the Word, as essentially defining my epistemology. I return to my early disenchantment with North American behavioral theories of learning.

Instinct vs Culture

The common observation that human learning should not be inferred from the learning displayed by pigeons and rats, requires examination. I believe it to be true, but the reason is important. Animal learning has been shown to depend upon a predictable relationship between stimulus and response. Newly-hatched chicks and infant worms quickly get down to the task at hand. There is a range of stimuli which have

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meaning for them, and when the stimuli are presented, the instinctive responses are evoked. A very great deal has been made of this, by behaviorists, much more than is warranted. For animals, it is as if they are born with their culture embedded, in the form of instincts. With humans it is not so. With humans, their culture must be transmitted from one generation to the next. For humans, stimuli without culture have no meaning, and responses are erratic and unpredictable. With animals, the concept of "thought" must be understood differently from the concept of human thought. For humans, thought is a necessary component of the transmission of culture, whereas with animals it appears to be much more a simple processing of neurological transmissions generated by the proximity of stimulus and response.

The Transmission of Culture

Comparisons with animal learning represent only a kind of analogy, and, like all analogies, break down if pressed too far. Whatever animal learning is, or is not, should best be left to the zoologists, and is really of little concern here. References to it are made simply to stimulate discussion. What is really important is an analysis of the nature of human learning, and the implications of that analysis for the educator.

Human intelligence which results in an efficient and effective handling of experience consists primarily of three elements: perception, concept-formation, and response. All three depend upon cultural components which give a common shared meaning to events and objects. I often use the example of the archeologist who requires help to understand what he has dug up. The physical properties of what he has found may be very clear. The color, size, shape, texture, and odour of an object can be agreed upon (although even concepts of this nature have a culturally-determined meaning). Still, the archeologist may not know what he has found, until he has learned what the object meant to the man or woman who last used it. This is a simplistic indication of the significance of the phenomenologist approach. Another, more immediate example can be found in most homes inhabited by teen-age offspring and adult parents. Physical objects and social events may have very different meanings to each class of observer. What to the teen-ager appears "cool" may, to the adult, appear as rudeness, selfishness, or both. What to the parent appears correct and proper, may appear to the child to be insufferably "square".

The meaning of both events and objects resides therefore as much in the mental meaning which is imposed on them, as in their physical attributes. The significance of this fact is that the development of the mind's capacity for concept-formation and the development of an actual repertoire of such concepts profoundly affects not only the capacity to deal with the world in an intelligent way, but also serves to define the very nature of the world with which one is interacting.

An Analysis of Criminal Thinking

Legalistic definitions of criminality do not help us in this context. It is not enough to know that a person is defined as a criminal if he has broken the law and been so convicted. I would prefer to remain wholly detached and objective, but I cannot do so when it comes to defining criminality, which requires an essentially subjective definition. Mine is the following: criminal thinking may be operationally defined as those thought processes which, when acted upon in a consistent and sustained manner, result in harm or injury to other people as a general consequence. This statement contains many assumptions, some of which I am not very comfortable with. This is an attempt to make a conceptual leap from the discussion of the nature of phenomenology and the definition of an epistemology, to the treatment of a social consensus of a very immediate nature. The leap is not easy, and I do it very shakily, in an effort to show that my theory has application.

The hypothesis is that some common elements can be found in the perceptions, meanings, and response-repertoires of those who display criminal behavior, which can be differentiated from the perceptions, meanings, and response-repertoires of those who do not display such behavior. This approach does not seek for the moment any form

of explanatory or analysis of the genesis of such thought patterns. Based on its underlying phenomenological assumptions, it simply hypothesises that significant differences exist between the perceptions, concept-formation, meaning-categories, and developed response-repertoires of the two groups. If this hypothesis can be defended, it then would lead us to exciting prognoses of how to go about effecting change.

Interpersonal vs Impersonal Intelligence

Serious controversy exists with regard to the degree of similarity and interchangeability of what is called interpersonal vs impersonal intelligence. The preponderance of opinion would seem to favour the making of a clear distinction between the two, and the conclusion that good development in one does not necessarily correlate with good development in the other. As the good Canadian that I am, I favour a compromise view; ie; that there are common elements to both forms of intelligence, but that the application of common abilities must be learned within its appropriate context. The ability to make comparisons and understand temporal and spatial relations is a requirement for both kinds of intelligence, for example, but unless this general ability is used within a concrete context, it will not be demonstrated. Conversely, if the general abilities to compare, and to understand temporal and spatial relationships are not present, they cannot be applied in either social or non-social contexts. I suppose that most of the real debate centres on the question of whether these general overriding abilities should be developed in a social context, or a non-social one. Here again, my own answer, and not one that I expect to satisfy others, is that the particular context probably does not matter in any absolute sense, but that for any given individual at any given point in his or her stage of development, one context may be more propitious.

I also believe that it is easier to approach the question of cognitive development (the development of enhanced perception, improved concept-formation and categorization of experience, and the amplification of response-repertoires) for criminal students, through the non-social context. For most incarcerated criminals, social relations have become so emotionally charged with intervening noise that they are difficult of access. We have found that by concentrating initially on cognitive development through a non-social context, inmate students are less resistant to change, and develop faster. I do not have convincing statistical data to present. I do have a background of personal experience, and the evidence displayed by some dozens of teachers working with under-educated criminals in Canada's federal prisons. The self-reports from teachers and from students using a form of non-social cognitive education are the most positive and dramatic that I have received during the past six years that I have worked with the educational programs in Canada's federal penitentiaries.

What the Program Presented

A lengthy period of preparation of staff was entered into, in order to introduce Reuven Feuerstein's Instrumental Enrichment process. First, a series of professional development video programs was produced. For this, Dr. Feuerstein was brought from Israel to Canada, with selected members of his staff, as well as academics in the United States and Canada, who were conversant with the Feuerstein approach. A large body of taped materials was made into a series of six programs which were made available to teachers throughout the system. Teachers and administrators were invited to briefing sessions, where the philosophy, the theory, and the materials were discussed. Teachers were invited to complete exercises. Those who volunteered for further training were brought to a central location for one week of intensive training (Toronto). In retrospect, we know that one week was not enough, and that refresher sessions are still required.

As the exercises were presented in classrooms, teachers were monitored. In one case, where there was too much deviation from the intended model, a teacher was removed from the program. In some institutions, groups of students were given pre-tests on standardized and non-standardized measures, and control groups were used. The final

report of the evaluation of pre-and post measures of experimental and control groups has not been published. The test results show a significant difference, but not test can reveal the kind of enthusiasm, optimism, and hope which was reported by both teachers and students. One of the difficulties that Instrumental Enrichment has encountered in the academic world is an excess of enthusiasm among its supporters. The academic world has learned through long experience that the seeds that grow quickly are often in shallow ground. Enthusiasm and demonstrative support has been seen to disappear rapidly when educational promises are not kept.

I believe that the Feurestein process of Instrumental Enrichment will not fade when the initial enthusiasm has passed. Without the severe and radical cutbacks in education of the past few years, Instrumental Enrichment would have made a larger mark than it has in our schools. Without the cutbacks in research and evaluation funding, Instrumental Enrichment would have undergone more widespread intensive review similar to the one carried out on a small scale within the schools in the Correctional Service of Canada. If this proliferation had taken place, and if this evaluation had followed it, the status of Instrumental Enrichment would be different than it is today.

The Implications

If it can be shown that the program of cognitive education engaged in by federal inmates in Canada's penitentiaries has resulted in significant cognitive change, the implications for potentially affecting criminal behavior are important. The idea that these students hold of themselves, of their social and non-social worlds, is, to a phenomenologist like myself, determined by the concepts and meanings which these people impose on the objective world. Their world is not ours, although we share the same streets, automobiles, and cafés. The world they live in is not made up primarily of the physical objects that surround us, nor of the physical events which we observe. It is made up primarily of the mental constructs, ideas, and concepts which they have about those physical objects and events. When we show that the constructs, ideas, and concepts can be changed, we show that the world of the criminal can be changed, and we may assume that the responses he makes to his changed world, will be different as well.

Conclusion

I believe that the educator working in a correctional setting should consider the implications of the possibility of cognitive change, and its potential impact on changed behavior. He or she should accept the challenge presented by this possibility of change, and begin to ask what the nature of the change ought to be. Perhaps first the educator needs to challenge his or her own cognitive development, and subject him or herself to a program of cognitive education. If we believe that man can change, and that the nature of that change can form the object of a kind of consensus, then I believe that the potential impact of a cognitive-change process such as Instrumental Enrichment needs to be taken seriously. Perhaps the adolescent's dream of changing the world can take on a new perspective; perhaps we can seriously propose that the world of the adolescents and young men in our prisons can be changed, when we change the definition of that world through cognitive education.

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PLANNING FROM BOTH ANGLES AND JUSTIFYING IT

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the in-service training needs of Florida's County Extension Agents as perceived by the agents themselves and state extension administrators and specialists. Findings indicated a high relationship existed between county and state staffs' degree of competence perceptions for the nine major training areas. When degree of importance and degree of competence comparisons were made for combined staffs, county staff and state staff, inverse relationships were found to exist for all three groups.

In 1967, extension efforts were focused on trying to merge and thus integrate what for years had been deemed and vividly labeled as black (1890) and white (1862) extension programs. However, as time progressed, those efforts shifted and attention was directed toward developing "sound measurable objectives" to evaluate overall program impact. Then in the mid 1970's, the myth which was once perceived as an economic venture by large corporate industries/business became a reality: "the energy crisis" and with it, the altering of pre-planned programs.

During most of these occurrences, extension administrators' daily maintenance tasks were perpetuated with high turnover rates at the county extension level. Even today, the age of technology and the prolific science of computers are demanding new types of technical knowledge in program areas.

In recent years, extension as a whole has been baffled with many changes. Needless to say, the Florida Cooperative Extension Service is no different. The typical attitude of most county extension staff perhaps can be best described as "what can we expect next?"

A review of literature revealed that a considerable amount of research has been conducted in the area of in-service training which relates to county extension agents. However, the vast majority of that research focused on areas of pre-service training, job responsibilities, training volunteers, training paraprofessional and program aides, and recruitment of volunteer leaders in the Cooperative Extension Service. Nevertheless, a large majority of that work dealt with general areas of training and did not actually attempt to concentrate on specific training needs of county extension staff.

Since job responsibilities of program areas determine the type of training needed for county extension agents, this research looked at specific perceived training needs as they relate to various job responsibilities within program areas. This research, because of the population studied, is by nature considered bi-fold. The problem statement for this research is as follows. What are the in-service training needs of Florida's County Extension Agents as perceived by the agents themselves and as perceived by state extension administrators and specialists?

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Three hypotheses were developed to give further direction to this study. They were: (1) there will be no significant difference in ranking (based upon mean scores) of degree of importance for the nine major training areas as perceived by county extension staff and as perceived by state extension staff for county staff; (2) there will be no significant difference in ranking (based upon mean scores) of degree of competence for the nine major training areas as perceived by county extension staff and as perceived by state extension staff for county staff; and, (3) there will be no significant difference in ranking (based upon mean scores) of degree of importance and degree of competence for the nine major training areas as perceived by combined staffs, county staff and state staff.

METHODOLOGY

A summary of the methodology used in this study is discussed below in a condensed review of the subjects, instrumentation, data collection and treatment of data.

Subjects

Through the use of mail questionnaires, 307 county extension agents and 191 state administrators and specialists were surveyed with a response rate of 80.7 percent and 58.1 percent respectively.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were two adjacent Likert Scales which focused on the nine major training areas identified by the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP). Those areas were: (1) Understanding Extension Organization and Administration; (2) Understanding the Communication Process; (3) Understanding the Social System within the County; (4) Understanding the Thinking Process; (5) Understanding the Human Development Process; (6) Understanding the Education Process; (7) Understanding the Program Planning and Development Process; (8) Research and Evaluation; and, (9) Technical Knowledge in Program Areas. In addition, each of the nine major training areas were broken down into sub-categories constituting 176 degree of importance items and 176 degree of competence items. Since the review of literature did not reveal any standardized (established) instrument to adequately measure the variables under investigation, the researcher developed one comfortable for this study. However, the basic development of the instrument was adapted and amended from those used by McCormick (1959), Price (1960), Soobitsky (1971) and Brooks (1975).

Data Collection

Data collection was accomplished through the use of mail survey. Due to substantial budget cuts within the Florida Cooperative Extension Service, survey instruments were distributed from the Dean's Office (Florida Cooperative Extension Service) by bulk mail to the 67 Florida County Extension Directors. Each county extension director then distributed the instrument to each member of his/her staff. Distribution of instruments to state extension administrators and specialists was accomplished by direct utilization of the campus mail system at the University of Florida, Gainesville. The instruments were returned from county extension agents separately via direct mailing to the researcher. State administrators and specialists were instructed to return their instruments to the Dean's office through campus mail. Those instruments were then sent directly to the researcher by bulk mail.

Treatment of Data

After instruments were returned, the data were transferred to Fortran Coding Sheets and keypunched by the researcher on IBM cards for statistical analysis at the Computer Science Center, University of Maryland, College Park. Descriptive statistics, Spearman Rank Order Correlation, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

were run using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program to make the analysis. Analyses were made between ranks for the nine major degree of importance and degree of competence training areas and degree of competence among the nine major training areas with statistical area of employment, academic level, academic major, rank, years employed (Florida Cooperative Extension Service), man days of training annually, and percentage of time in program area.

Findings

When Spearman Rank Order Correlation statistics were calculated for the nine major training areas, the following was found.

--A very high degree of association (ρ .96) existed between combined staff and county staff perception of degree of importance.

--A moderate degree of association (ρ .67) existed between combined staffs and state staff perception of degree of importance.

--A moderate degree of association (ρ .58) existed between county and state staff perception of degree of importance.

Further analysis revealed that "Understanding the Human Development Process" was perceived least important and ranked ninth among the nine major training areas by all three groups, while "Technical Knowledge in Program Areas" was ranked first by combined and county staff and second by state staff.

--A very high degree of association (ρ .93) existed between combined staffs and county staff perception of degree of competence.

--A very high degree of association (ρ .93) existed between combined staff and state staff perception of degree of competence.

--A high degree of association (ρ .83) existed between county and state staff perception of degree of competence.

In addition, "Technical Knowledge in Program Areas", "Research and Evaluation", and "Understanding the Communication Process" were overall perceived as the areas which county staff were least competent.

When further analysis were made by comparing the relationship between degree of importance and degree of competence for the nine major training areas among the three groups, Spearman Rank Order Statistics showed the following.

--A moderate inverse degree of association (ρ -.60) existed for combined staffs.

--A low inverse degree of association (ρ -.44) existed for county staff.

--A very high inverse degree of association (ρ -.93) existed for state staff.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistics were run to test the degree of relationship between nominal independent and interval dependent variables. The following was found among the nine major degree of competence training areas.

--Only one area (Technical Knowledge in Program Areas) was statistically significant (.05) with statistical area of employment, academic level, academic major. However, rank was statistically significant (.05) among six of the nine major training areas.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation statistics showed that only two areas, Research and Evaluation and Technical Knowledge in Program Areas, were statistically significant (.05) with man days of training received annually. However, those two areas had coefficient values of -.14 and -.12 and were considered negligible.

IMPLICATIONS

The most alarming entity of this research was found to exist between degree of importance and degree of competence perceptions by both county and state staffs. One can but wonder why agents were perceived by state staff and perceived themselves less competent in the area that was identified most important in carrying out their job responsibilities (Technical Knowledge in Program Areas). However, extension's success over the years as a viable organization has been largely due to its ability to adapt to the various changes brought about from social, political, economic and societal demands within our environment.

The overall findings of this study suggest that county extension agents' training needs exist mainly in the following three areas:

- Technical Knowledge in Program Areas;
- Research and Evaluation; and,
- Understanding the Communication Process.

The consensus of both county and state staff perceptions is that Technical Knowledge in Program Areas is the training area in which county extension agents were least competent. This suggests that training priorities be focused in that direction. If one is able to visualize a link between the three areas above, these areas should be seriously and consciously considered as training priority areas in the near future. In addition, training programs should be provided which will have the greatest impact in increasing competence level based upon program/job responsibilities.

Since findings indicated that statistical area of employment, academic level, major for highest degree earned, rank, years employed with the Florida Cooperative Extension Service and man days of training annually (if not statistically significant) were correlated with training needs, those variables should also be recognized as important factors in planning training programs.

In-service training is a vital component to extension's existence. Not only is it designed as an educational process in the continuous development of extension staff, but it also serves as a possible mechanism in which knowledge gained through research can be disseminated through educational programs to local community clientele. As America is faced with cutbacks in government appropriations, the abolishment of social programs and positions, extension should re-examine their programs and services. County staff should be asked to play a vital role in identifying training areas which they perceive important and least competent in carrying out their job responsibilities. This perhaps can be best accomplished by evaluating present methods of planning training programs and making changes wherever necessary. In addition, a more concerted joint effort by county and state staff should be made in planning training programs.

ADULT LEARNING AS MEASURED BY
DIETARY BEHAVIOR CHANGE

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Mardelle K. Amstutz

Abstract

This study focused on the changed dietary behavior of low income adults enrolled in the Maryland Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP). Learning was measured using 24-hour food recalls administered by EFNEP Aides. Correlated and two-sample t-tests were used to test hypotheses. Results of the study have implications for adult learning in an informal setting.

INTRODUCTION

Adults are continually exposed to new information and experiences. However, this exposure does not always result in learning. In this paper, we are interested in assessing adult learning. There is general agreement that learning involves change (Boyd, et al., 1980; Kidd, 1973). Payne (1968) describes learning as desired change in pupil behavior. Gross (1977) envisions learning as purposeful self-change as part of a continuous life-long process and Hilgard, et al., (1975) say that learning involves a relatively permanent change in behavior.

Verudin, et al., (1977) identify changing behavior as the primary function of the educator. In evaluating the effectiveness of continuing education programs, Bennett (1976) developed a hierarchy of evaluation evidences with the category of behavior change ranking near the apex. This line of thinking and the previous assumptions should direct educators to express goals and objectives in terms of desired behavioral changes in the learners with an emphasis on relatively permanent changes.

In this study we were particularly interested in measuring behavior change, i.e., learning, not only in a temporary context, but also in that which might be termed as "relatively permanent." The study examined learning during the period of instruction as well as the extent of learning retention after instruction had ceased. The Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP), a program of the Cooperative Extension Service, provided a forum for conducting this research. Instruction was provided by paraprofessional aides who taught enrolled homemakers (learners) primarily on a one-to-one basis in their homes.

Desired behavior change in EFNEP focuses on improving diets which are measured using a 24-hour food recall. At the time a homemaker is enrolled in EFNEP, and every six months thereafter, a 24-hour recall of all food and beverages consumed by the homemaker in the 24 hours prior to the recall is taken. This information is then used to assess the homemaker's progress toward established goals. Food consumption is compared with an optimum level based on a minimum of two servings of milk (or equivalent), two servings of meat (or alternates), four servings of fruits and vegetables, and four servings of breads and cereals. These are often referred to as the Basic Four Food Groups. Although foods from the fifth food group (Fats, Sweets and Alcohol) are recorded on the 24-hour recall, they have

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not been included in diet assessment as there are no recommended number of daily servings from this group. However, dietary guidelines for Americans as listed in Nutrition and Your Health (U.S. Department of Agriculture and Department of Health and Human Services, 1980) recommend avoiding too much sugar, fat and alcohol. In order to determine a more complete picture of dietary behavior as a result of EFNEP participation, foods from the fifth group were included in this study.

Few studies have examined the permanency of diet changes by EFNEP homemakers (Gassie and Jones, 1972; Williams, 1970). Such evaluation is essential in assessing the long term impact of EFNEP as an adult education program and its contribution to lifelong learning.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of the study was to measure adult learning as evidenced by dietary changes of low-income adults who participated in the Maryland Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program. Of particular interest was the retention of dietary changes after homemakers were graduated from the program.

METHODOLOGY

Sample. The sample consisted of 129 randomly selected graduated homemakers who were enrolled in EFNEP between October 1, 1976 and September 30, 1977. To be "graduated", a homemaker must have received nine or more teaching visits by an Extension Aide during enrollment in EFNEP. An intact group of 194 homemakers who had not received EFNEP teaching was used for comparison purposes. The newly enrolled and the graduated groups represented a pre-treatment/post-treatment comparison, with the major variable being instruction through visits by Extension Aides. Thirty-eight graduated homemakers who had an intake of three or more servings from the Fats, Sweets and Alcohol Group were identified as "high-consuming graduated homemakers."

Instrumentation. Demographic data and the 24-hour food recall taken upon enrollment in the program existed for both the graduated and the newly enrolled groups. In addition, comparable data taken just prior to leaving the program existed for the graduated group. A third set of comparable follow-up data was collected post-participation for graduated homemakers. The follow-up food recall was an addendum to the "Homemaker Questionnaire," a 20 question survey of homemakers' practices and interests. While the Homemaker Questionnaire provided useful program information, its primary purpose was to make the follow-up recall less obtrusive.

The Guide to Good Eating of the U.S. Department of Agriculture served as the standard by which scores were assigned to the diets of homemakers. A "Scoring Table for Twenty-Four Hour Diet" enabled the computation of a numerical score based on the number of servings consumed from the Guide to Good Eating's four food groups. The scale included multiple combinations of servings from the four food groups, ranging from a minimum of 0 servings, and thus a score of 0, to a maximum of 12 servings and a score of 100. The latter signified the recommended number of servings from each of the four food groups for an adult. No additional points were given for consuming more than the recommended number of servings in any of the four food groups. Servings consumed from the fifth food group, known as the Fats, Sweets and Alcohol Group, did not affect the diet score; however, servings from this group were tallied and provided an equally important component in the analysis of the data.

Procedures. The researchers selected the time period from which to draw the sample on a best-guess perception of homemakers participating in the program an average of two and one-half years and being out of the program an average of one and one-half years. A criterion of nine or more visits was established for homemakers to be considered "graduated." Lists of homemaker names, enrollment dates and number of visits were provided by the EFNEP Extension Agents in each of 11 EFNEP locations. Of the 774 homemakers enrolled between October 1, 1976 and September 30, 1977, 607 qualified as "graduated." Identification numbers were assigned to "graduated" homemakers thus assuring anonymity. A 43% sample was drawn using a random digits table which resulted in 263 homemakers being selected.

Thirty-four Extension Aides who had collected the pre-existing data on the sample of graduated homemakers were trained by eleven Extension Agents in a prescribed session. During August and September 1981, Extension Aides completed interviews with 129 graduated homemakers using the Homemaker Questionnaire. Demographic and dietary data were coded for computer analysis. Consumer Price Index monthly indices were entered on each homemaker to adjust income and food expenditures for the effects of inflation on purchasing power.

Data Analyses. Two sample t-tests were used to compare diet scores between groups and the correlated t-test was used to compare diet scores within the graduated homemaker group. Hypotheses predicted that (1) participation in EFNEP would result in improved diet scores, and (2) participation in EFNEP would result in lowered consumption of foods in the fifth food group. Alpha was established at .05 level of significance.

RESULTS

Demographic Data. Demographic data at the time of enrollment showed the graduated homemaker group to be an average of 32 years of age with a household size of 3.8 persons including 2.2 children. Racial background of the graduated homemaker group was 57% white, 41% black and 2% hispanic. A ninth-grade education or more had been completed by 78% of the group. Urban and rural residency was about equally represented within the group. About half (51%) of the homemakers received Food Stamps and 30% received welfare assistance. Average length of participation in EFNEP was 31.2 months for the graduated homemakers during which an average of 35.8 visits were received. Average length of time out of the program was 20.2 months at the time of the follow-up interview.

Some comparable data on the newly enrolled homemakers revealed their average age to be 29 years and household size to 3.7 persons of whom 2.2 were children. More homemakers (92%) had a ninth-grade education or higher. The newly enrolled group also had a higher participation rate in Food Stamps (75%) and welfare (42%) programs.

Adjusted for inflation, the purchasing power of monthly incomes of graduated homemakers dropped from \$484 upon enrollment to \$463 just prior to leaving the program to \$448 at the time of follow-up interview. Newly enrolled homemakers had slightly lower monthly incomes of \$413 at enrollment.

Adjusted per capita monthly food expenditures for graduated homemakers were \$56 upon enrollment, \$47 upon leaving the program, and \$51 at the follow-up interview. Newly enrolled homemakers expended \$47 per capita; in addition 33% of the newly enrolled group received free WIC (Women, Infants and Children's program) supplemental foods.

Hypotheses. In testing hypotheses of whether participation in EFNEP resulted in improved diets, three pre-test/post-test comparisons based on mean diet scores were made. The findings were: (1) the entry score of graduated homemakers was 54.4 compared to their final participation score of 82.9; (2) graduated homemakers' follow-up score was 76.0 compared to their entry score of 54.4; (3) the entry score of newly enrolled homemakers was 56.3 compared to the follow-up score of 76.0 for graduated homemakers. (Figure 1 illustrates the data points in comparisons 1 and 2.) The differences in all three comparisons were significant at the .0005 level. Entry scores of the graduated and newly enrolled homemakers were not significantly different.

Findings from a second set of hypotheses which addressed the consumption of foods from the fifth food group were: 1) high-consuming graduated homemakers had an intake of 4.3 servings upon enrollment compared to 2.7 servings just prior to leaving EFNEP; and 2) high-consuming graduated homemakers had an intake of 4.3 servings upon enrollment compared to 3.2 servings at the time of the follow-up interview. (The three data points in these comparisons are illustrated in Figure 2.) The differences in intake were significant at the .001 and .01 levels respectively.

Figure 1.
Diet Scores of Graduated Homemakers

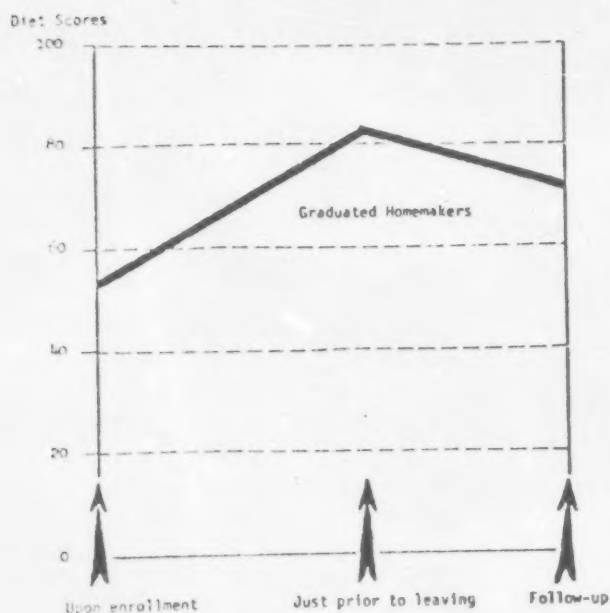
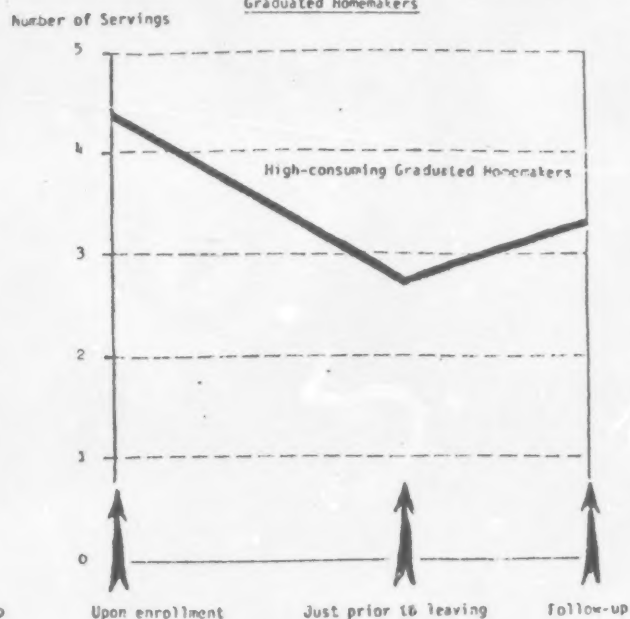


Figure 2.
Servings from the Fifth Food Group by High-consuming Graduated Homemakers



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings from the two sets of hypotheses supported the notion that EFNEP was effective in improving diets of homemakers who participated in the program. Not only did homemakers consume more foods in the four food groups, but high-consuming homemakers lowered their intake of foods in the less essential Fats, Sweets and Alcohol Group. The two components meshed together to provide a total picture of the diet; either alone was incomplete.

The data collected prior to departure from the program and post-participation data provided evidence that diet scores changed in a positive direction and were retained at a relatively high level. Three-fourths of the diet improvement made during participation was sustained one and three-fourths years after the homemakers left EFNEP. Likewise, consumption levels in the fifth food group were reduced and remained significantly lower post-participation than upon enrollment.

The results of this study appear even more positive when viewed in the context of the erosion of purchasing power due to inflation. The final and follow-up diet scores of graduated homemakers were superior to the entry diet score, even though income and food expenditures were highest upon enrollment. Diets improved even though resources became more scarce.

The comparison of diet scores of the newly enrolled homemaker group with the graduated homemaker group contributed evidence that EFNEP made a difference in the positive change of diets. Without this comparison, any number of other factors may have been possible explanations for the positive dietary changes.

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT LEARNING

Results of this study of dietary changes of low income adults participating in the University of Maryland Cooperative Extension Services' EFNEP have several implications for adult learning. They provide additional documentation for the premise that if adults see the utility of what is taught, they will participate in a non-formal educational program and

make practical application of what they learn, i.e., change their behavior. Adult educators can utilize results showing low-income adults can retain learning without formal sustained reinforcement. The study has demonstrated the effectiveness of paraprofessionals teaching in an educational program for low-income adults. Other subject matter low-income adults perceive as relevant could be taught in a similar approach. It would appear that current teaching materials and methods employed in EFNEP are effective. However, those responsible for supervising and training EFNEP aides must continue to provide timely, accurate nutrition information of interest to clientele. Aides need to have a good grasp of principles of adult education. In particular they need to be cognizant of the needs of low-income learners and individual differences among learners. EFNEP in Maryland has extended Extension's outreach to low-income families with impressive results. State Food Stamp and WIC personnel should encourage the referral of eligible families to EFNEP, when appropriate, to provide optimum services to families. Food and nutrition information should be made easily accessible to graduated homemakers through newsletters, media and other means to reinforce changed diet behavior when they are no longer enrolled in the program.

It can be concluded that EFNEP in Maryland has resulted in long term changes in dietary behavior of low-income adults who have graduated from the program. The study has also demonstrated the effectiveness of paraprofessionals in an educational program using behavior change as evaluation evidence.

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to report the findings from a pilot study of the effect of student involvement on student attitudes. Student involvement is defined as the instructor's involvement of learners in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program. Results of the study indicate that student involvement has (1) a powerful effect on learners' perception of their skill development in a course and (2) some effect on learners' readiness for self-directed learning.

"Andragogy, Not Pedagogy" was the title of an article that Malcolm Knowles published in Adult Leadership in April 1968. That phrase, "andragogy not pedagogy," opened a controversy which has yet to be resolved. Although the controversy is complex and has many issues, two central theses of Knowles' argument are simple: adults want to be self-directed learners; and the andragogical teaching process, which involves learners in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program, helps adults to be self-directed learners. (Knowles describes the second argument more fully in Self-Directed Learning, published in 1975.)

The Adult's Learning Projects, published by Allen Tough in 1971, gave support to Knowles' thesis about the desire that adults have to be self-directed learners. Tough's research showed that adults are actively involved in learning, initiating many learning projects each year. Tough also described the process of self-directed learning, noting those points where learning is most often frustrated and where the assistance of another person may be necessary for a learning project to continue. His research did not, however, specifically address the relationship of the andragogical teaching process and self-directed learning.

Many educators who read or heard about andragogy and The Adult's Learning Projects taught in colleges, universities, and technical institutes. For many of them, the andragogical teaching process that Knowles described differed from their way of teaching. Some of them felt that it was appropriate for continuing education or extension programs but not for curriculum programs. Others believed in andragogy but said that they could not implement it in their classrooms. Others tried to implement andragogy in the traditional college setting; these educators used either group learning techniques or learning contracts or a combination of both group learning techniques and learning contracts to involve their students in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program.

In the past ten years, many educators have described how they have involved learners in course planning and design (Bruffee, 1973; Burke, 1977; Carroll, 1976; Hawkins, 1976; Higgins and Laplante, 1980). Most of these studies described what occurred in the classroom or what the instructor did. Another study used student questionnaires to validate that students perceived that they were involved in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of the course (Kerwin, 1981). None of these studies, however, satisfactorily answered the two central questions raised by Knowles and Tough almost twelve years ago:

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What effect or effects does involving learners in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program have on adult learning? Does the involvement of learners in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program help them to be self-directing? The purpose of this paper is to report the findings from a pilot study designed to answer these questions.

RELATED RESEARCH

Several studies have indicated that teaching behaviors which involve learners in the planning, conducting, and evaluating of an educational program have a powerful effect on learner attitudes. McLoughlin (1971), Cole and Glass (1977), Fortune (1977), Cafferella (1980), and Lavery (1981) report that student involvement has a significantly positive effect on a student's attitude toward a course; Roelfs (1975), on the other hand, reports that most students twenty-three years old or older prefer an instructor-centered style of instruction. In addition, Lavery (1981) and Cafferella (1980) suggest that learning contracts, which involve students in course planning and design, may help learners to be more self-directing. In both of those studies, however, the research sample consisted of students who were studying adult education. The content of the courses and the background of the students could, therefore, contaminate these findings.

HYPOTHESES

Using the preceding studies as a springboard, this study examined the effect of student involvement in course planning and design on six specific student attitudes: knowledge acquisition, skill development, course difficulty, attitude toward the instructor, attitude toward the subject of the course, and readiness for self-directed learning.

DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND POPULATION

The study has two phases. In the first phase, 61 students in five curriculum English classes at a technical college completed the Educational Attitudes Survey (EAS) during the final week of the 1982 spring quarter. Most of these students were twenty-three years old or under, female, unemployed and enrolled fulltime in a two-year degree program. The EAS consisted of questions asking the learners to report (1) biographical data, (2) instructor behavior, and (3) attitudes toward five aspects of the course. The sixteen items describing an instructor's behavior were taken from a questionnaire developed in an earlier study for that purpose (Kerwin, 1979). Descriptive procedures of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) were used to compute mean scores for each student on the student involvement factor; linear regression procedures were used to analyze the effect of student involvement on each of five student attitudes.

In the second phase, nine students in a class using instructional strategies to increase student involvement completed the EAS and the Self-Directed Learning Readiness Scale (Guglielmino, 1980) as a pre- and posttest during the 1982 summer quarter. The two-variable, two-panel path model described by Heise (1970), Bohrnstedt (1969), Duncan (1969), and Wimberley (1972) was used to analyze the effect of student involvement on readiness for self-directed learning using SAS descriptive, correlation, linear regression, and standardization procedures.

RESULTS

The results of the regression analysis in phase one are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
The Effects of Student Involvement
on Five Student Attitudes

(N=61)

Dependent Variable	beta	F
Knowledge Acquisition	.134	0.55
Skill Development	.740	18.03*
Course Difficulty	.120	0.20
Attitude Toward the Instructor	.073	0.08
Attitude Toward the Course Subject	.208	1.00

*p $\geq$.0001

As one can see by examining the regression coefficient (beta) and the F score for each of the five dependent variables, student involvement had a significant effect on only one of the five student attitudes--the amount of skill students perceived that they had gained in the course. Student involvement accounted for 29 percent of the variance in the students' perception of skill development.

The results of the analysis in phase two are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
The Effect of Pretest Scores of Student Involvement and
Readiness for Self-Directed Learning on Posttest
Scores for Student Involvement and Readiness
for Self-Directed Learning

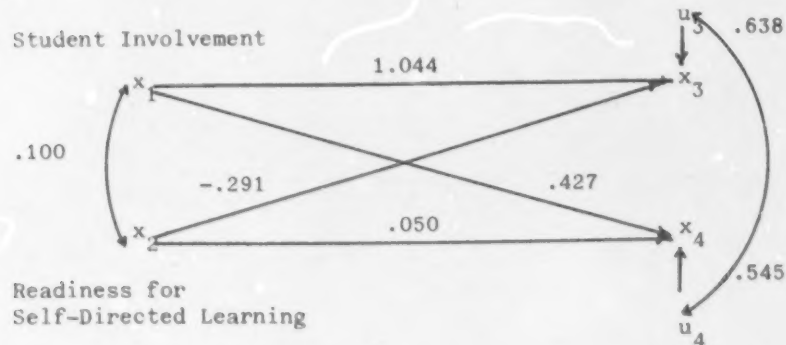
(N=9)

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables		R ²
	Student Involvement	Readiness for Self-Directed Learning	
Student Involvement	1.044	.150	.605
Readiness for Self-Directed Learning	.427	-.291	.703

Figure 1 presents the path model that was constructed as a result of this analysis.

Figure 1

Path Analysis of the Relationship Between Student Involvement
and Readiness for Self-Directed Learning



The large positive coefficient of p_{31} indicates that the student involvement has remained relatively stable during the period between measurements. The low coefficient of p_{42} indicates the instability of this variable in the period between measurements. Path p_{41} and p_{32} represent the effect of student involvement on readiness for self-directed learning and of readiness for self-directed learning on student involvement. Since both are non-zero, student involvement and readiness for self-directed learning have some mutual dependence. Path p_{41} is greater than p_{32} , however, suggesting that student involvement has more of an effect on readiness for self-directed learning than readiness for self-directed learning has on student involvement. Given the small number of students participating in this phase of the study, however, the results of this analysis are inconclusive.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Results of both phases of this study indicated that (1) student involvement had a powerful effect on the learners' perception of skill development in the course and (2) student involvement may have some effect on the learners' readiness for self-directed learning. Although further study is needed to test the effect of student involvement on readiness for self-directed learning and skill development in various disciplines, the findings of this study indicate that educators who use instructional strategies to increase student involvement can also increase the learners' perception of their skill development and their readiness for self-directed learning.

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IMPROVING OHIO'S EXTENSION AGENT ORIENTATION
WITH A NEW NEEDS ASSESSMENT EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

Keith L. Smith
William E. Beckley¹

ABSTRACT

The research (1) examined a new evaluation instrument for Extension Agent Orientation Conferences in Ohio, and (2) determined if the instrument could lead to the improvement of orientation programs based on needs assessment qualities. The Ohio instrument was modeled after one developed by Borich at the University of Texas (1980). Data were obtained from 94.8% of the agents who attended the four New Agent Orientation Conferences held from September 1980 to February 1982. Although the results showed no gain in mean conference scores, it is important to note that means remained consistent and high.

INTRODUCTION

Orientation is a vital part of staff development activities in the Cooperative Extension Service. All new employees need an appropriate job introduction to be able to accept their responsibilities with confidence, to understand what is expected of them, and to feel secure in their work environment (ECOP, 1977).

In the past, the needs of new agents have been taken for granted. In the 1977 National Guidelines for Staff Development from the Extension Committee on Policy, mention was made that although specific needs of new employees will differ, all new personnel will likely have educational needs in certain areas. The national committee has identified these areas. Ohio has tried to follow these national guidelines in clarifying their topics for orientation.

In a further effort to provide a meaningful orientation experience to new agents, Ohio began a twice-a-year, two-phase program in 1980. Agents who have been on the job for six months or less are given the Phase I orientation, in which they receive information on Extension philosophy, organization, procedures, and other introductions to their specific program area. Agents who have been on the job six to twelve months, and have had Phase I orientation receive Phase II orientation. In this program agents are given in-depth information on program planning, implementation, and evaluation procedures.

In order to evaluate the new, two-phase orientation conferences, an instrument was developed, based upon a model by Borich (1980). The model employs needs assessment techniques in conducting follow-up studies of preservice and in-service training activities. The model uses discrepancies which compare "what is" to "what should be." The modified Ohio instrument has been developed to examine: 1) the perceived importance of a training topic, 2) the perceived knowledge of that topic, and 3) the need for further training in that topic area. The discrepancy between importance and knowledge, and importance and training needed, when weighted according to the topic importance were ranked to assist future program planning efforts.

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The Ohio instrument is somewhat different from the one studied by Borich (1980) and Barrick (1982). Where these authors used instruments to measure knowledge and application discrepancies, the Ohio instrument measured knowledge and training needed discrepancies.

Purpose and Objectives

The major purpose of this study was to examine the Ohio instrument, modified from Borich's, and to determine if the instrument could lead to the improvement of orientation programs. The specific objectives were:

1. To ascertain the relative importance of specific orientation training topics as perceived by new agents.
2. To ascertain the relative knowledge gained in specific orientation training topics as perceived by new agents.
3. To ascertain the relative training needed in specific orientation training topics as perceived by new agents.
4. To ascertain improvement in the orientation conferences by analysis of the mean perceived importance and mean perceived knowledge competency, across four conferences.

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

The total number of eligible, new agents who could have attended orientation during the period of the study was 121. All new agents attending the four orientation conferences from September 1980 to February 1982 numbered 115. Data were obtained from 109 of the 115 eligible agents (94.8% response of those attending).

Data Collection

Mail questionnaires were the main sources of data for the study. Content validity for the instrument was established using a panel of experts in the field of evaluation and Extension. Each questionnaire contained four parts. Part 1 obtained demographic data needed to make intra-group comparisons. Part 2 sought agents reactions to the overall conference using an eleven-point, Likert-type scale (Standardized Item alpha on scale items in part 2 was .83). Part 3 contained the Discrepancy model items which measured perceived importance, perceived knowledge competency, and perceived training needed for each orientation conference topic. A fourth part of the instrument elicited open-ended, general comments concerning the conference.

The Model

The procedures suggested by Borich (1980) influenced the following steps in the Ohio study.

1. List Orientation Training Topics

After each conference, a list of orientation training topics presented at the conference was compiled.

2. Survey Conference Participants

Mail questionnaires were sent to conference participants asking them to rate the importance, knowledge competency, and additional training needed for each topic area on the instrument. These items were defined on the survey instrument as follows:

Importance: The importance of this subject matter to your job function.

Knowledge Competency: Your perceived knowledge of the subject matter (your ability to accurately recall or summarize the subject matter).

Additional Training Needed: Whether you need additional training on the subject matter.

The survey instrument had the following form, with one being low and five being high:

<u>TOPIC</u>	<u>PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE</u>	<u>PERCEIVED KNOWLEDGE COMPETENCY</u>	<u>PERCEIVED TRAINING NEEDED</u>
1.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

3. Rank Topics: The topics were then ranked using the following formulas:

Weighted Knowledge Score =

(Importance Mean - Knowledge Mean) Importance Mean

Weighted Training Score =

[5 - (Importance Mean - Training Mean)] Importance Mean

These relative weighted scores were then ordered from high to low. The topics with the greatest weighted scores (greatest discrepancy between "what is" and "what should be") were given more attention when planning future orientation conferences.

Data Analyses

To measure the improvement of the orientation programs, the researchers chose to use the SPSS package of one-way analysis of variance (Nie, et al, 1975). The dependent variables were the grand means of all training topics' perceived importance and knowledge competencies for each orientation conference. The independent variable was time of orientation. A Tukey multiple-range test was used to detect significant differences between means at the .05 alpha level.

RESULTS

Table 1 reports most of the higher ranking major topics in the four orientation conferences. Over 37 different topics were identified and used during these conferences and were continued, discontinued, or involved in major revisions due to close examination of means using the weighted scores.

The data analyses showed that for the variable "perceived importance," the difference between the mean response in February 1981 (4.05) and the September 1981 mean response (4.37) was significant (Table 2). Other differences between perceived importance means were not significant. The analysis also showed that the variable "perceived knowledge competency" had no significant differences between means (Table 2). Tables 2 and 3 also show the means broken down by Phase. Note that, in general, Phase II was rated higher than Phase I.

TABLE 1
MEANS OF HIGHLY RANKED ORIENTATION TOPICS

TOPIC	MEANS ¹					
	SEPTEMBER 1980 ²			FEBRUARY 1981 ²		
	IMPORTANCE	KNOWLEDGE	TRAINING	IMPORTANCE	KNOWLEDGE	TRAINING
History of Extension	3.90	3.60	1.85	3.00	3.25	1.00
Professionalism	4.00	3.79	2.58	3.50	4.17	1.83
Benefits	4.25	3.30	2.80	4.89	3.78	2.78
Program Planning (1)	4.42	3.26	3.53	4.43	3.86	2.86
Working w/Secretaries	4.25	3.85	2.20	3.29	3.71	1.43
Coping w/Job Stress	3.78	3.72	2.83	4.29	3.71	2.71
Effective						
Communications	4.39	3.89	2.92	4.43	4.29	3.29
Writing News Articles	4.63	3.50	3.75	4.29	3.57	2.00
Program Planning* (2)	4.54	3.54	2.77	4.41	3.65	3.06
Time Management*	4.91	3.91	3.09	4.67	3.78	3.22
Grand Means ³	4.33	3.61		4.05	3.69	
	n=34			n=28		

TABLE 1 (CONTINUED)

TOPIC	MEANS ¹					
	SEPTEMBER 1981 ²			FEBRUARY 1982 ²		
	IMPORTANCE	KNOWLEDGE	TRAINING	IMPORTANCE	KNOWLEDGE	TRAINING
History of Extension	3.56	3.67	1.80	4.00	3.87	1.63
Professionalism	4.38	3.85	2.54	3.88	3.75	2.57
Benefits	4.08	4.00	2.50	4.20	3.75	2.37
Program Planning (1)	4.58	3.50	3.25	4.33	3.33	3.63
Working w/Secretaries	3.69	3.75	2.08	4.13	4.25	2.25
Coping w/Job Stress	3.85	4.00	3.08	4.25	4.13	2.29
Effective						
Communications	4.60	3.33	3.64	4.43	4.14	2.80
Writing News Articles	4.67	3.42	3.92	4.25	4.13	2.83
Program Planning* (2)	4.75	4.00	3.00	3.93	3.27	2.80
Time Management*	4.75	4.25	4.00	4.38	3.75	2.69
Grand Means ³	4.37	3.68		4.14	3.82	
Total n=109	n=21			n=26		

¹Based on a five-point Likert-type scale

²Combined Phase I and II

³Other topics were also included in determining the Grand Means

*Phase II topics

TABLE 2
PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE: MEANS AND
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CONFERENCES*

CONFERENCE TIME	MEANS		OVERALL
	PHASE I	PHASE II	
September 1981	4.24	4.58	4.37 A
September 1980	4.03	4.42	4.33 A B
February 1982	4.14	4.13	4.14 A B
February 1981	3.88	4.38	4.05 B

*Means with the same letter are not significantly different at alpha = .05

TABLE 3
PERCEIVED KNOWLEDGE COMPETENCY: MEANS AND
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CONFERENCES**

CONFERENCE TIME	MEANS		OVERALL
	PHASE I	PHASE II	
February 1982	3.90	3.68	3.82
February 1981	3.66	3.75	3.69
September 1981	3.71	3.64	3.68
September 1980	3.62	3.58	3.61

**Means are not significantly different at alpha = .05

SUMMARY/IMPLICATIONS

Although the results do not support the notion that the new instrument leads to the improvement of orientation programs, an important note is made that conference means remained consistent and high. This stability in the orientation conferences is an important finding for Extension administrators.

As a result of the findings:

1. Ohio will continue to use the modified Borich instrument to evaluate new agent orientation conferences.
2. Ohio will expand the use of the instrument to other areas of in-service training.

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SCENES FROM OUR PAST:
THE LITERATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

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Abstract

Drawing on case study and historical research, both original and secondary, this presentation will bring to life scenes from several chapters in the history of modern American adult education. Documented history as reported in letters, diaries and personal reminiscence is blended with imaginative literature written by the authors to provide a dramatic glimpse of the people, events and chronology which have received little attention in the research literature of the field. The presenters, whose backgrounds include training in speech, drama and creative writing prior to their current careers as adult education researchers and practitioners, will use the art of oral interpretation to explore several periods of twentieth-century adult education history and the people who created it. The vignettes to be presented are:

Hyman Kaplan, Our Only Hero
Happy Days, Exerpts from the Journal of the Civilian Conservation Corps
The 1931 Strike of Florida Cigarmakers
Bonaro Overstreet, Leaning on the Sun
Breaking Bread Together

American adult educators are remarkably ignorant of their own history. This observation is not surprising, since the research literature includes few examples of historical inquiry. Those few scholars who do get caught up in the history of adult education have learned that their research remains on the periphery of the research literature, a discovery which may help to explain why whatever rich ore might be there, no one returns to the mine twice. Thus, Malcolm Knowles never returned to write the definitive work about any segment of his earlier broad, sweeping history (1962, 1977), and C. Harley Grattan leaves us thirsting for more than his one fine historical work, In Quest of Knowledge (1955).

Perhaps even more distressing is the lack of imaginative literature which draws on and illuminates the past and present enterprise of educating adults. Given that only the court-ature in America, the absence of adult learners and their teachers has a profound effect on us all, leaving us no models--as teachers or learners--in our fiction, drama, film or poetry. At the same time, it is impossible for us to imagine a popular literature equally bereft of life-sized doctors, lawyers, executives, astronauts.

Our only fictional hero as adult student is Leo Rosten's H*Y*M*A*N K*A*P*L*A*N. Less that precocious student of Mr. Parkhill, Mr. Kaplan combines malapropism and out-and-out errors with a sense of dignity that neither Mr. Parkhill nor Mr. Kaplan's more "correct" fellow students can erode. Fluency in English is not among Hyman's gifts. He is blessed with incomparable self-confidence and zest, however, and even his errors in Mr. Parkhill's

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class seem to evoke his fond self-esteem. Hyman tends to be considerate of others in his class, most of whom are also learning English for the first time in any formal sense, but his needs clearly are greater than theirs even if his perception of those needs is often somewhat obfuscated by his very enthusiasm. Kaplan refers to a movie idol of the Thirties as "Clock Gebble," to his work as that of a "Cotter in Dress Faktory."

Providing further detail about his employment, Hyman Kaplan writes as follows:

Shakspere is saying what fulls man is and I am feeling just the same way when I am thinking about mine job a cotter in Dress Faktory on 38 st. by 7 av. For why should we slaving in dark place by laktric lights and all kinds hot for \$30 or maybe \$36 with overtime, for Boss who is fat and driving in fency automobi! I ask! Because we are the deprassed workers of world. And are being exploitied. By Bosses. In mine shop is no difference. Oh how bad is laktric light, oh how is all kinds hot. And when I am telling Foreman should be better conditions he hollers, Kaplan you redical!! (Rosten, 1937, p. 6)

At first or even second glance, Hyman as adult learner is neither stereotypical nor ideal. Nonetheless, time after time and chapter after chapter, Hyman's elan, confidence and integrity have won out for nearly fifty years over his irrepressible inarticulateness and Mr. Parkhill's bumblingly ineffectual techniques as a teacher of adults. The lesser characters, somewhat less memorable, serve as a kind of courteous counterpoint, but our protagonist in his ambition and confidence looms larger than Mr. Parkhill, larger than life, even larger than his magnificent signature:

H*Y*M*A*N K*A*P*L*A*N

This is the stuff wonderful literature is made of! But one novel, no matter how engaging, insightful, or exhilarating, does not a literature make. This paper is perhaps a second step toward creating that literature from the history of adult education--a dramatic story which has never received dramatic portrayal, peopled by heroes and heroines who have almost never been observed. What would it be like, we asked, if events from our history were part of the popular living literature? How might E. L. Doctorow fashion a gripping novel from the real experiences of adults seeking knowledge, skills and empowerment during the Thirties? What roles might there be for Meryl Streep or Dustin Hoffman in the drama and tension of the Public Forums or early Americanization classes?

We must begin somewhere. Let us set the story in the 1930s, a time when the nation's resources were running or nearly empty, when fear of totalitarian aggression in Europe was rampant, when unemployment hovered for an entire decade between 15 and 25%. The Depression unemployed were not the hardcore poor alone. There was a good fat sample of people of all kinds. During the 1930s one in every four or five persons of working age was unable to find work for long enough periods to learn how it feels to be unwanted (Bird, cited in Hilton, 1981, p. 3).

Our story might ring of adventure and escape, for the decade was--among other things--a decade of escape literature, a decade marked by books, films and plays about crime and punishment, and a time when adventure stories-- from Frank Buck to Richard Halliburton--held great popular appeal. The source for the setting and tone might be the Civilian Conservation Corps; although not quite the "Royal Road to Adventure," the CCC represented for its enlistees a curiously satisfying, and adventurous, road into productive work, away from the alternative of urban poverty and squalor, and for many, first-time adventures of the mind.

Lawrence A. Cremin has described the educational components of CCC camps as "the most dramatic of the sweeping pedagogical inventions of the New Deal," at the same time as he emphasized the fact that the educational aspects were secondary to the larger role of providing employment in useful projects for those who could not otherwise find such employment (Hilton, 1981, p. 211). Fortunately for many enrollees, and for the history of adult education, the man selected to head up the educational programs of the CCC was a Dean of Contin-

uing Education at the University of Buffalo, Dr. C. S. Marsh. Among Marsh's admonitions to the "Educational Advisors" in his employ were these: "Do not rely too much upon classroom instruction as usually carried out in school or college" (Hilton, 1981, p. 218). He knew the kinds of men admitted were not likely to be those for whom schooling had already been an adventure.

One of the enrollees, Leonard Mallory, wrote home to his sweetheart, sounding for all the world like a romantic young college student:

....I'm doing fine. Learning a lot of new things. Doing a lot of painting. A teacher from one of those WPA programs had one of my pictures in an art exhibition. I got a chance to meet a lot of other artists and some writers. Met Richard Wright....and sometimes I wander into the wilderness, and think about you, our love. Wondering whether what we knew, what we had was just fancy. It's hard to know. Before, back in Boston, in school, I didn't see the world. I've changed. I'm more relaxed. On the whole, this life has been good to me. I've developed some sense of order. I think of myself as a soil soldier. (Hilton, 1981, p. 231)

In a letter written to his sister within a few weeks of this one, Lennie commented on the "two kinds of 'education'" one was likely to encounter in the camps:

There's the kind you get inside camp--lectures, talks, blackboards, using the camp library, or catching up on your school work. This is "off-the-job" kind--the camp educational advisor comes in on this. The other kind is "on-the-job"--learning while doing. The foreman or the forester, or the agronomist, or the engineer, handles this on the job. Both kinds are useful to have when you leave camp. (Hilton, 1981, p. 232)

What has rarely been observed was that the 30's was one of the great decades of adult education in our nation's history. People flocked to all kinds of learning centers--public forums, cooperative extension, special projects of the federal government. It was a time when newspaper readership rose dramatically, library cards doubled and trebled, and even cigar makers in Tampa, Florida cried out for their own variety of adult learning. In this story, related by author Jose Yglesias to Studs Terkel, lies a drama worthy of a John Steinbeck or Clifford Odets.

The strike of 1931 revolved around readers in the factory. The workers themselves used to pay twenty-five to fifty cents a week and would hire a man to read to them during work. A cigar factory is one enormous open area, with tables at which people work. A platform would be erected, so that he'd look down at the cigar makers as he read to them some four hours a day. He would read from newspapers and magazines and a book would be read as a serial. The choice of the book was democratically decided. Some of the readers were marvelous character actors. They wouldn't just read a book. They'd act out the scenes. Consequently, many cigar makers, who were illiterate, knew the novels of Zola and Dickens and Cervantes and Tolstoy. And the works of the anarchist, Kropotkin. Among the newspapers read were the Daily Worker and the Socialist Call.

The factory owner decided to put an end to this, though it didn't cost them a penny. Everyone went on strike when they arrived one morning and found the lecture platform torn down. The strike was lost. Every strike in my home town was always lost. The readers never came back. (Hilton, 1981, pp. 236-237)

No literature could be complete without a heroine or two, and the history of adult education provides us with numerous life-sized and even larger-than-life models. Some of the most prolific and insightful writers have been women, among them Dorothy Canfield Fisher, Ruth Kotinsky and Bonaro Overstreet, and it is Mrs. Overstreet who also provides us with romantic interest--one more requirement of a compelling story.

In the summer of 1928, Bonaro enrolled in a summer school course at Berkeley to learn how to teach adults. Her professor was Harry Overstreet, a visiting professor from New York, fifteen years her senior, an accomplished author and psychologist. More than a half century later, she recalled her first assignment in that class, and the impact it had on her self perceptions and ultimately her life work.

The first assignment he gave was, "What makes you feel qualified to teach adults?"...What different outlook, what different method, what different this and that is involved in teaching people who don't have to come from teaching people who do? Where you have constantly to meet the competition of other things they might be doing in the evening instead of coming to class. What does it take? I will never forget--in fact, I think I still have the paper I wrote for that buried somewhere among my souvenirs--but I'll never forget trying to think through that question. What makes you think you are equal to the challenge of teaching adults? (Hilton, 1981, pp. 254-255)

Harry and Bonaro fell in love and four years later she traveled to New York to become Mrs. Overstreet. Thus she became a part of the exhilarating golden years of the American Association for Adult Education during which some of the greatest adult education literature was written. To be sure, Bonaro and Harry were members of the inner circle which has been widely criticized as being elitist, but she speaks with warmth and excitement of her friends --who to present-day adult educators are pioneers and heroes of mythical proportions--and of their experiences as teachers and learners.

We had people who were specialists in their own field who started things, had never taken a course in adult education....I always have to tell this story about Charles Beard which I love very much. He had a beautiful, aquiline-sharp face. One time during the Depression....he invited a group of young people to come up who wanted to get together to talk about how they might be useful during the Depression....A young man made a proposal of something they could do, and one of the others said, "Oh we couldn't do that. People would think we were on the lunatic fringe." Charles Beard turned and looked at the young man and said, "Young man, I have been on the lunatic fringe for 40 years and have never found it uncomfortable." (Hilton, 1981, pp. 253-254)

I was taking classes at the New School for Social Research. I took art, modern painting. I took drama, modern drama. I taught--the YW began to pull me into teaching. From that time on it was a tangled, lovely process of teaching and learning, teaching and learning. I took creative dancing, heaven help me, at the Dennishawn School, Ruth St. Dennis and her husband's school. We were supposed to make up dances to certain pieces of music. I lumbered through that, had a wonderful time. But I was just trying to--well, I don't suppose I thought I was going to match Francis Bacon. I undertook to take all knowledge as his province, but I was on the trail of it. You remember the line of Emily Dickinson where she speaks of being like a little kid leaning on the sun--I felt that way that year. (Hilton, 1981, p. 272)

Yes, Bonaro could easily be our heroine--traveling through the pages of our story and linking its characters and scenes with her vision and interpretation of its meaning. And she would surely tell our readers that the essence of adult education is and always will be that magical exchange of insight and wisdom between teacher and learner. She even provides us with the broad outline of another heroine, Rachel Dubois, who might serve in our story to

demonstrate the embodiment of that grand theme. Rachel was a talented teacher who found a way to enable people to set aside generations of accumulated hostility and come together to learn as neighbors. She worked in the public school system of New York and had a unique task. Age-old animosities between peoples and immigrated to the New World along with hope and dreams of a better life. The antagonisms of their parents proved to be barriers for order. Harry and Bonaro attended several discussion groups Rachel conducted with clusters of parents and marveled at her inventiveness and sensitivity in creating experiences which enabled adults from dozens of countries to share their common feelings and experiences.

She asked them to recall their first memories of bread and share them. You see, here was something that undercut the differences. Here is the bread of life, here is that which they all had to have in one form or another. It was simply miraculous the way the hostilities faded as they compared notes on the kind of bread that their mothers had made when they were children. As simple a thing as that; but the hostilities faded.

At the end of it, a young black man who was there suddenly rose and started singing, "Let Us Break Bread Together On Our Knees." A lot of them didn't know it, but he taught it to us. It was a miraculous experience. That's adult education too, adult education of the spirit. (Hilton, 1981, p. 257)

And so it seems that the ingredients are indeed here for at least one addition to the library shelves. Drawing from history, we can embellish and expand upon known fact, weaving real people and events together with the thread of imagination to bring the past to life not only for scholars but for the populace to enjoy. So let us begin....

The bright California dawn that June morning in 1928 gave little hint of the dark days just months ahead which would become infamous as the Great Depression. The giddy anticipation of coeds grabbing a quick cup of coffee before dashing to their first class would be replaced by the disillusionment of endless searches for ways to put their Berkeley education to use, and manage to eat and pay the rent as well. As Bonaro skipped lightly to her eight o'clock, the sun shone on her face and for one split second she toyed with the idea of skipping class, but her curiosity about the famous Professor Overstreet won out. "There will be sunshine tomorrow, too," she convinced herself as she entered the classroom and inconspicuously took her place in the third row....

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EDUARD C. LINDEMAN AND THE IDEA
OF LIFELONG LEARNING IN AMERICA

David W. Stewart¹

Abstract

Eduard Lindeman derived his philosophy of adult education from four principal sources: (1) John Dewey, (2) Ralph Waldo Emerson, (3) Bishop Nikolaj Grundtvig, and (4) Mary Parker Follett.

In 1926, Eduard Christian Lindeman, a social philosopher on the faculty of the New York School of Social Work (later incorporated with Columbia University), wrote a book called, The Meaning of Adult Education. It received generally favorable, though hardly exuberant, reviews. It emerged at about the same time as a number of other books and articles on adult education -- many of them quite excellent in content and style. It contained no original ideas of significance.

When considered apart from Lindeman's other work, The Meaning of Adult Education offers no convincing rationale for giving its author the title, "Father of Adult Education in America" as has been done by some adult educators. Yet this slim volume, when considered in perspective over the nearly five decades since its publication, may offer the best and most cogent synthesis of adult education as a living activity that has been written to date. It also has a freshness and elegance of style that remains as spritely in 1983 as it was in 1926. Its author, in writing it, worked quickly, "letting myself do" after the free manner of Walt Whitman.

Lindeman can perhaps be faulted for failing, in a book called The Meaning of Adult Education, to provide a straight-out formal definition of the topic he was discussing. He was himself aware of this omission and justified it by asserting that no adequate definition was possible for a moment in which the movement was so unsettled in its direction (Lindeman, 1929, p. 178). His major theme in the incipient stages of his thinking at the time the book was written in 1926 was that the whole of life is learning and that education can therefore have no endings. It is called adult education "... not because it is confined to adults but because adulthood, maturity, defines its limits." (Lindeman, 1926, p. 5).

Greater precision in definition was achieved by Lindeman in an article appearing in June of 1929. It is this definition, referred to by Lindeman as a "conception" of adult education, that will be the center referent point in this paper. To Lindeman, then, adult education at this point in his thinking was:

... a cooperative venture in non-authoritarian, informal learning, the chief purpose of which is to discover the meaning of experience; a quest of the mind which digs down to the roots of preconceptions which formulate our conduct; a technique of learning for adults which makes education co-terminous with life and hence elevates living itself to the level of adventurous experiment. (Lindeman, 1929, p. 178)

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One might quarrel with the content of this statement, but it is surely the most poetic definition of adult education that has ever been set forth.

Lindeman derived his philosophy of adult education from four principal sources. Bed-rock philosophical underpinings came from pragmatism as developed by John Dewey (within a context earlier defined by William James and Charles Sanders Peirce) and from the "Sage of Concord", Ralph Waldo Emerson. Further key roots are to be found in the philosophy and practice of the 19th Century Danish philosopher-theologian-educator Nikolaj Grundtvig, and in the work of the American political scientist Mary Parker Follett.

DEWEY AND THE PRAGMATIC ROOTS

From the philosopher John Dewey, who was a colleague of Lindeman's at Columbia University and a friend, Lindeman gained his greatest aggregation of philosophical roots. It was Dewey's philosophy -- pragmatism -- that provided the basic underpinning for Lindeman's development of the idea of adult education or lifelong learning. At the core of this philosophy is the pragmatic view that ideas are true if they can be experienced as being true. The key word here is "experienced" and it is this word that is the key to Lindeman's use of pragmatism as the starting point for his philosophy of adult education.

Lindeman gained from Dewey a host of ideas including the following notions (not mutually exclusive) which he developed with particular reference to adult education: (1) Education is life, not preparation for life (Durant, 1926, p. 567:2) All of life is an experiment (Lindeman, 1949, p. 159); (3) Education is the process of supplying the conditions to insure an individual's growth regardless of age (Dewey, 1916, p. 61); (4) Knowledge is meant to be used (Lindeman, 1949, p. 159); (5) True education is problem- or situation-centered (Lindeman, 1926, p. 115); (6) An educated person is one to whom a valid learning method has become natural and is routinely applied to all the affairs of experience (Lindeman, 1940, p. 35); (7) The end of education is growth (Lindeman, 1940, p. 36).

From Dewey, also, Lindeman obtained his method of applying to ideas pragmatic tests which were integral with his concept of the process of adult education. These tests varied a bit as stated from speech to speech and from article to article, but a typical version in his mature years went like this: (1) Is the idea workable? Feasible? (2) Is it specific, concrete? (3) Does it meet human needs? (4) What difference will it make? To whom? (5) What are the alternatives? (6) Is room left for future experimentation? (7) How are the consequences to be tested? and (8) What values are likely to be served? (Lindeman, 1950-1953, p. 144).

It is generally accurate to say that adult education, as articulated by Eduard Lindeman, is a derivative of progressive education as enunciated by John Dewey. Dewey spent the bulk of his "practice" time and energy experimenting with progressive education techniques with school-age children. Lindeman focused more on pragmatism as a philosophy underlying adult education and worked primarily with adults; he is therefore a more direct ancestor of adult education in American than is Dewey.

THE DEMOCRATIC ROOTS: EMERSON

Eduard Lindeman was captured as a disciple by Ralph Waldo Emerson at a very early age and his near hero-worship of Emerson increased with each added year of his age. Lindeman read and reread all of Emerson's published books and articles. He minutely analyzed Emerson's journals. He wrote several books and articles about Emerson including an unpublished manuscript found in his desk after his death. Lindeman incorporated

Emersonian ideas in nearly all of his work, and he frequently mentioned Emerson in his speeches. All of Emerson's work was a crucible within which Eduard Lindeman developed his own philosophy, and Lindeman himself cannot be understood apart from Emerson.

To Lindeman, Emerson was the most eloquent spokesman for American democracy, and he saw adult education as the principal instrument of the democratic process. Emerson's thinking about the age-old question of the intersection of means and ends particularly intrigued Lindeman. He was fond of quoting this passage from Emerson: "Cause and effect, means and ends, seed and fruit, cannot be severed; for the effect already blooms in the cause, the end pre-exists in the means, the fruit in the seed." (Lindeman, 1952, p.14).

The end pre-exists in the means. To Lindeman, adult education was the ultimate means, always present, always a part of transition, always changing the end in view. Because ends pre-existed in means, there could be no such thing as good ends that were justified by evil means. It was this basic belief that sharply separated Lindeman from many of his intellectual contemporaries in the 1920's, 30's, and 40's who were turning sympathetically to Marxist views. Eduard Lindeman's voice was one of the strongest and clearest raised for the ideals and means of democracy as opposed to either Fascism or Communism, especially during the 1930's.

Emerson lived before the philosophy of pragmatism emerged but his thinking did merge with pragmatism to a remarkable degree. As Lindeman pointed out, Emerson viewed truth as possessed by those who can use it -- the one condition coupled with the gift of truth being its use. The educated person was one who could apply his learning to practice (Lindeman, 1944, p. 408).

Among a host of other ideas that Lindeman gleaned from Emerson and consistently integrated with his own philosophy of adult education were these: (1) The teacher should also be the pupil (Lindeman, 1954, p. 194), and (2) The aim of education is to help an individual gain control over the circumstances of life (Lindeman, 1954, p. 176).

DENMARK AND GRUNDTVIG

Something very good happened to Denmark in 1864. That small nation lost a war to neighboring Prussia. Because they lost the war, they lost territory -- the provinces of Slesvig and Holstein which they were forced to cede to Bismarck's Prussia. But Denmark, in defeat, gained something infinitely more precious than the territory it lost following the Danish-Prussian War. It gained a grassroots-based movement in community development and adult education that would become a beacon to the world. Guided by the slogan: "What we have lost outwardly we must gain inwardly," Denmark began building a new society that would be counted as one of the wonders of the modern world by observers in the early 20th Century (Davies, 1931, p. 102).

A most remarkable man was part of this movement and was its unquestioned philosophical leader. He was a bishop of the Danish State Lutheran Church. His name was Nikolaj Frederik Severin Grundtvig, and he should be counted as one of the outstanding men of the 19th Century. Lindeman had read Grundtvig's work and, in 1920, paid his first visit to Denmark. He returned captivated -- in some ways uncritically captivated -- by what he believed to be the vision of a mature democratic society at its best. He was greatly influenced both by Grundtvig's philosophy of education and by the tangible expression of it in Danish society -- particularly by the Danish Folk High-Schools.

Specifically, Lindeman picked up these ideas from Grundtvig and incorporated them in

his own philosophy of adult education: (1) True adult education begins where vocational education leaves off (Davies, 1931, p. 89); (2) Education must make a person conscious of his membership in a community and of his responsibilities as a citizen of a democracy (Davies, 1931, p. 72); (3) True education must operate in freedom for the learner (Knudsen, 1955, p. 164); (4) Adult education is not a supplementary process to fill up the gaps in one's earlier years; it is instead a key stage in human development with methods and status of its own (Davies, 1931, p. 82); (6) Problems are not abstractions, they are situation-based and answers, to be real, must be integral with the real life situation (Knudsen, 1955, p. vii.).

It is hardly an exaggeration to say that Lindeman was obsessed with the success of Denmark and talked about Denmark in his articles and speeches almost to the point of overkill.

MARY PARKER FOLLETT: AN INTERACTIVE ROOT

Mary Parker Follett, like Eduard Lindeman, has almost been forgotten today -- though this unjustified neglect may be corrected with publication of a biography now in preparation. While she was not a giant in the mold of Dewey, Emerson, or Grundtvig, she was a brilliant and insightful woman, a political scientist, who was a contemporary of Lindeman. Follett first earned public accolades in 1918 when she published a book called, The New State. She was at work on another book, Creative Experience (1924), when friends suggested that she and Lindeman were pursuing similar themes and should work together, rather than separately.

Though in the end productive, theirs was at times an uneasy collaboration and a wary friendship. It was an association born of necessity perhaps, rather than by genuine mutual desire. Yet, both were important influences on the other. The principal points at which their ideas intersected came at: (1) the concept of experience as the source of learning and creativity, and (2) the concept of adult education or "creative experience" as the basic instrument of democracy.

Working with Mary Follett, Lindeman was able to advance his thinking with these ideas: (1) Democracy is a process, not a goal (Follett, 1965, p. 99); (2) Democracy is not given to a people, it must be learned (Follett, 1965, p. 22); and (3) Behavior must be changed through experience rather than by the impact of ideas (Follett, 1924, p. 200). Mary Follett died in 1933 and in an obituary tribute to her, Lindeman cited this quote from her work as one which had particularly influenced him: "No human relations should ever serve an anticipatory purpose. Every relation should be a freeing relation with the 'purpose' evolving." (Lindeman, 1934, p. 86) This was an idea that Eduard Lindeman was to continue developing to his own dying day.

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CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF TEACHERS, PRE-RETIREEES AND RETIREEES
OPINIONS ON DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE OF TOPICS
FOR PRE-RETIREMENT TRAINING

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Abstract

Opinions of teachers, pre-retirees and retirees were surveyed to determine whether there was agreement on the degree of importance for preplanning on 18 topics. Medians were computed and retirees' opinions were correlated first with teacher opinions and then with pre-retiree opinions, using Spearman r ranks. Then pre-retiree opinions were correlated with teacher opinions. Retirees disagreed with the other two groups on the importance of social, general and psychological topics. There was some agreement among the three groups on income topics and complete agreement on leisure topics. Socialization topics were rated extremely important by retirees.

INTRODUCTION

Changes in Pre-Retirement Counseling

Changes in retirement counseling patterns have occurred during the past 10 years. Previously, counseling had been given on pension affairs and health insurance adjustments, either on a one-to-one basis or in a group setting. Literature was usually handed out to the pre-retiree to study at home. Today, teachers of pre-retirement training consult experts in the field, search the literature and act on recommendations given by researchers, practitioners, and by retirement organizations. Some teachers conduct a needs assessment of their prospective pupils. A few do follow-up studies to determine the results of the training, and use the feedback to design new curricula.

Problems Pre-Retirement Curriculum Designers Face

Pre-retirement curriculum designers, striving for the ideal pre-retirement training program, find three questions facing them. These are: (1) Is there a difference between the training given and the training which should be given in order to meet the five basic human needs? The five basic human needs can be found on Maslow's Ladder of Hierarchy of Needs. These are the need for physiological safety, security, social, ego, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1962); (2) How do pre-retirees feel about early training as recommended by researchers Woodrow Hunter, J. Roger O'Meara and U.V. Manion; and (3) Do retirees feel they have received the type of training which meets the five basic human needs so they can experience a successful retirement?

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Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers of pre-retirement training, pre-retirees and retirees agreed or disagreed on the degree of importance for preplanning on 18 topics. The topics were divided into sub-groups of income, general, social, psychological, and leisure time activities.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were randomly selected from three previous studies. The first study surveyed United States Cooperative Extension staff development specialists who give pre-retirement training. They were asked to rate the topics on degree of importance for pre-retirement training and to estimate the amount of training that had been given during the last five years. The response rate was 86.6 percent of the total population. This included one staff development specialist from each state. The number randomly chosen for the correlational study was 30 respondents.

The second study surveyed the opinions of all Washington State Cooperative Extension Service faculty. They were asked to rate the topics on degree of importance for pre-retirement training, on how much study had occurred, and how much training they would like to have. Again, the degree of importance for training medians was much higher than medians of the other two categories. From this study, 73 respondents were randomly selected for the correlational study.

The third study surveyed retired Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty. They were asked to rate the topics on degree of importance, amount of study they had before retirement, and the amount of study they would like to have today. Medians on the degree of importance for study prior to retirement were the highest on the five point scale.

Survey Instruments for the Three Previous Studies

A mail questionnaire was designed, pre-tested, and implemented for each of the above groups. Income planning topics included annuities, part-time work, reduced income living adjustment, investments, and legal affairs. General topic categories included federal fringe benefits, health (diet, exercise and mental), where to live, and accommodations. Social topic categories included volunteer activities, socialization with friends and relatives, travel (meeting new people), and continuing education. The category for psychological topics of sense of belonging and love, sense of self-worth, and joy in life (anticipation and participation) received the highest ratings. Leisure time activity categories included cultural activities, hobbies and caring for animals.

The scale used was a forced response scale. The Likert scale was not used because of the middle category of "no opinion." The code for extremely important was five; for important, four; for somewhat important, three; for hardly important at all, two; and for not important at all, one was the appropriate code.

Correlational Study Statistics

The ages of the randomly selected staff development specialists were as follows: under age 40, six respondents; between 40 years and not yet 60 years, 22 respondents; and 60 years or older, two respondents, making a total of 30 respondents. The age categories for the Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty was as follows: under age 40, 26 members; 40 but not yet 60 years of age, 40 respondents; 60 years or older, seven respondents. In the retired Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty study, the ages fell into the following categories: 55 but not 65 years of age, five respondents; 65 but not yet 75 years of age, 17 respondents; and 75 years or older, eight respondents.

Medians were computed for each topic in each group of respondents. Correlations were determined using Spearman rho rank correlation coefficients between staff development specialists and Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty and between staff development specialists and Washington State Cooperative Extension retired faculty. Pre-retiree Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty were correlated with retiree Washington State Cooperative Extension faculty members.

RESULTS

Income

Spearman r ranks between teachers and pre-retirees was +.60, between teachers and retirees +.60 and between pre-retirees and retirees +.80. There was some agreement that income planning topics of annuities, investments and legal affairs were extremely important and part-time work and reduced income living adjustment less important.

General

Retirees disagreed with both teachers and pre-retirees on the importance of general topics of federal fringe benefits, physical and mental health, and where to live. Spearman r ranks were -1.00 between teachers and retirees, +1.00 between teachers and pre-retirees and -1.00 between pre-retirees and retirees. The topic of where to live was given a higher rating than the other two topics.

Social

Disagreement between respondents occurred on social topics of volunteer activities, socialization with friends and relatives, travel (meeting new people), and continuing education. Teachers rated volunteer activities as most important, pre-retirees rated continuing education as most important, and retirees rated socialization with friends and relatives as most important. Spearman r ranks were -.20 between teachers and pre-retirees, -.80 between teachers and retirees, and -.40 between pre-retirees and retirees.

Psychological

Spearman rho ranks were -.50 between pre-retirees and retirees, +.50 between teachers and pre-retirees and +.50 between teachers and retirees. Retirees rated sense of belonging and love and joy in life as extremely important whereas pre-retirees rated sense of self-worth as extremely important.

Leisure Time Activities

Respondents tended to agree on leisure time activities topics of cultural activities, hobbies and caring for animals. They all rated this category as somewhat important. Spearman rho ranks between teachers and pre-retirees was +1.00, between teachers and retirees +1.00, and between pre-retirees and retirees +1.00.

IMPLICATIONS

The results from this correlational study indicate that teachers and pre-retirees are not yet aware of the great importance of socialization after retirement. Retirees are so busy meeting physiological and safety needs that energy for social, ego and self-actualization needs is limited. More training could be given on how to use preventative measures to avoid problems in meeting the need for adequate food, rest, shelter, exercise, and protection from the elements. Training is needed on income planning topics in order to more effectively meet safety needs such as deprivation, threat and danger, especially in low income neighborhoods in large cities.

The greatest need appears to be in the psycho-social area of life. Perhaps early training on how to establish and develop friendships, how to be accepted by fellow humans, how to give and receive friendship and love might become part of the training curriculum. Role playing in training sessions could make the pre-retiree feel more relaxed in tense social situations.

The social scene also affects the two kinds of ego needs. The importance of close friends cannot be over-rated. Ego needs appear to be neglected by our youth-oriented society. The retiree needs to have self-esteem, self-confidence, independence, some achievement, competence and knowledge. Teaching pre-retirees how to be psychologically young might be an approach which would help them maintain status, recognition, appreciation, and respect. These are needs which are rarely satisfied.

Another approach to understanding ego needs might be through teaching ego functions and ego development. Psychologists are excellent resources as well as counselors. There are many standardized tests on the market which might help the pre-retiree help himself develop a better understanding of his social needs.

Teachers of pre-retirement training often pass up a valuable resource. This is the successfully retired person. The successfully retired person may have some solutions to problems which cannot be found in textbooks and can be utilized as a valuable teaching resource.

Even though part-time work and reduced income living adjustment were only rated as somewhat important, in today's economy, additional training could be given on these two topics.

The question of where to live and accommodations needed upon retirement affect the outlook of the retiree. Some personality types prefer to be independent while other types welcome more structured control. Self attitudes need to be examined prior to retirement, even though pre-retirees are reluctant to waste time taking personality inventory tests.

From this study, it appears that volunteer activities are over-rated by teachers. Rewards do not appear to be as great as an ego enhancer as does the development of close friendships.

Generally, younger people view retirees indulging in leisure time activities. This is the highest rung on Maslow's ladder of hierarchy of needs. Before the retirees can fully realize his potentialities and take time to be creative, they must be educated to realize the importance of meeting both physiological and safety needs.

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A MODEL EDUCATIONAL ALLIANCE

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Abstract

The requirement for continuing and inservice education for health care providers does not diminish in relation to declining resources. Therefore, more cost effective methods of educational programming become important. This paper discusses an organizational model developed by a university's Continuing Education division to implement a contract with a hospital system. This contract provides a unique opportunity for the application of theories and concepts of educational leadership. The model demonstrates collaboration which can effectively link the resources of a university to the educational needs of an organization and offers the potential for replication in similar institutional settings.

INTRODUCTION

An alliance is defined as a union of interests -- a connection formed for the mutual advantage of the separate parties. This paper discusses an alliance as the basis for contractual agreement for educational services between the Appalachian Regional Hospital system (ARH) and the University of Kentucky's College of Allied Health Professions (CAHP). ARH and CAHP are described briefly and examples of similar arrangements are cited. The five steps in the organizational model are discussed.

The Two Parties Forming the Alliance

ARH, a not-for-profit health care system, spans three states in the heart of Central Appalachia: southeastern Kentucky, western Virginia, and southwestern West Virginia. The system, with corporate headquarters in Lexington (KY), includes 10 hospitals, 8 of which are also bases for home health agencies; 3 primary care centers; and 14 Black Lung Program sites. According to Brown and Lewis (1976, p. 122), ARH's comprehensive system "...is almost unique in the United States."

In 1963, ARH was incorporated to purchase and operate five Miners Memorial Hospitals which had been constructed by the United Mine Workers of America (UMWA) during 1953-54 to serve communities in coal-producing areas. These five defunct hospitals "...became the nucleus of one of the most interesting and innovative multiple-unit systems..." (Brown and Lewis, p. 121) as the other five UMWA hospitals were acquired by ARH in 1964. Currently the 10 hospitals range in size from 60 to 200+ beds and total 1150 acute, skilled/intermediate/and long term care beds. The system employs over 3,000 persons, 1200 of whom are allied health professionals.

The ARH leadership early recognized the need for organizational and planning mechanisms and established a Division of Continuing Education before 1973. While some education and training programs have been provided from the corporate level and within the individual hospitals, impetus for system-wide coordinated education and training planning was provided by 1982 ARH Action Plan recommendations. The positions of a Manager of Educational Services and a Director of Recruitment and Employee Development were authorized. In a period of

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increasing costs, additional impetus was provided by financial factors generated by (1) mandatory continuing education (MCE) requirements for relicensure in several clinical areas; (2) contractual agreements with the employees bargaining agents for providing continuing education and training; and (3) realization that maximum utilization of existing experience, expertise, and resources was not being achieved.

The corporation, then, identified its need for developing system-oriented staff development planning and programming to more efficiently serve its employees. They contracted with the CAHP for professional and administrative consultation to develop, implement, and evaluate CE and training systems and programs.

The CAHP with an academic faculty of 42 is one of five colleges in the University of Kentucky Medical Center (UKMC). The CAHP Office of Continuing Education (OCE) has been active since 1971 offering CE programs annually for statewide and national audiences of allied health professionals. Participants have included dental hygiene, dietetics, health education, medical records, medical technology, nursing, occupational and physical therapy, radiation technology, and respiratory therapy clinicians and educators.

Experience in program management functions and expertise in program design, implementation, and evaluation for health professionals, who are adult learners, could be considered assets the OCE brought to the alliance. To supply instructional services to ARH, several options exist: (1) the CAHP faculty can provide the services; (2) the OCE can provide the liaison with the UKMC colleges of Nursing and Pharmacy; or (3) the liaison with external units can be facilitated.

The circumstances of ARH's need matched with the CAHP's experience and resources created the opportunity for this educational alliance and model to be developed.

Precedent of Similar Arrangements

There is little evidence of similar cooperative relationships between universities and hospital systems. A national survey of 640 hospital-based trainers conducted in 1972 revealed that approximately four-fifths of their hospitals were engaged in one or more kinds of cooperative education and training programs with academic institutions (Schechter, 1974). Most of these relationships revolved around the provision of specific continuing and inservice education programs rather than overall collaborative planning for education. Affiliation agreements between universities and hospitals to place students in hospitals during limited time periods for clinical experiences are another kind of relationship. Frequently, any category of cooperative relationships is with a single hospital rather than with systems. Historically these agreements have been relationships created for a single rather than comprehensive purposes.

The Advancement of Health Services through Cooperation, Inc. (AHSC) represents the development of a strategy for sharing resources in which AHSC facilitates the linking of university resources to rural hospital needs (Zuckerman et al., 1980). AHSC services include, but are not limited to, inservice education. Annual membership fees are paid to AHSC by the participating hospitals for services and in effect, the AHSC is acting as broker between the hospitals and service providers. Although this arrangement has the potential of providing comprehensive services to its members, the services may be provided by a variety of persons and institutions resulting in fragmentation between planning and program delivery. In addition, the costs to the individual hospitals may be higher with the "middleman."

The ARH-CAHP alliance appears to be unique in that it provides all services through one organization, i.e. the university, and in a more cost effective manner.

THE EDUCATIONAL MODEL

The model has five major areas. Each component is integral to the optimum achievement of the goals and objectives. This section discusses each component, develops its relationship to the total model, and references the applied theoretical constructs.

Education Advisory Committee (EAC)

The first component is based on a plan for participatory involvement of the ARH personnel for whom educational services will be supplied. The contract specifically states that "ARH will form an Advisory Committee for Health Professions Continuing Education..." and that "Each corporate administrator will establish a local CE Committee composed of representatives of each involved discipline." Corporate support must be demonstrated for this to be accomplished.

In addition to ARH's administrative and financial commitment, a motivational process is involved and a number of organizational variables influence this process. The variables listed by Gibson *et al.* (1982) -- group affiliations, structure, task design, span of control, and leadership style -- are applicable. Group affiliations, structure, and levels were basic considerations in selecting members of the EAC: each hospital and each health discipline must be represented, and a blend of experienced and less experienced people was considered desirable as was a blend of various ranks. The span of control factor appears to be accommodated in that the task design and linkage expectations can be realistically defined by the EAC members in their meetings.

The leadership style exhibited is of utmost importance. ARH's corporate policies and staffing patterns support leadership styles which build involvement and investment. The contract provisions demonstrate a corporate policy commitment. Another example is the Manager of Educational Service who is based in the ARH's Lexington headquarters and who has the overall responsibility for developing and planning continuing and inservice education. A minimum number of organizational levels are present which facilitates communication, action, and a sense of progress.

The two CAHP-OCE persons primarily responsible for managing the contract and the ARH Director made site visits to the ten hospitals. Interviews with administrators, directors of nursing services, inservice education coordinators, personnel managers, and some chiefs of services and supervisors demonstrated a leadership style in conveying our joint commitment to establish an EAC which can provide optimum participation, involvement, and representation.

The EAC is the foundation in the model and its functioning appropriately is essential to a successful alliance. For eliciting data, disseminating information, and facilitating programming, the satellite EACs in each hospital have the potential for fully achieving the participatory involvement concept.

Educational Planning

The model's second component is comprehensive educational planning based on systematic needs assessment, implementation, and evaluation. This important area can produce an ongoing schedule of programming to meet the needs of several target audiences over a multi-year period of time. The result of needs assessment will be planned programming to more productively utilize personnel, funds, and facilities and higher quality less duplicative programming. Needs assessment procedures include both the training needs as perceived by AHR staff and their superiors and the collection of baseline data to determine whether, in fact, the programming made a difference.

Needs assessment as an integral part of program evaluation helps establish objectives, focus programs, and identify factors which may influence the design or implementation of a program. Relating program evaluation to needs can reveal the extent to which the needs identified have been reduced by the educational program. Thus evaluation procedures can include changes in behavior in addition to the more traditional measurement of changes in cognitive knowledge and in attitudes. Mechanisms for assessing behavioral change include direct observation; follow-up interviews with participants, supervisors, or co-workers; measures of work quality and quantity; and review of records in terms of absenteeism, turnover, and patient complaints.

Long-range planning involves a continuous needs assessment at the planning, implementation, and evaluation stages. Needs assessments build upon each other and may reveal trends that exist over time. By engaging systematically in long-range comprehensive program planning and by integrating needs assessment in planning, the ability to document the overall effects of the program is enhanced.

Education Leadership

Educational expertise and leadership are inherent to all components of the model. To avoid repetition, this discussion focuses solely on applying organizational development (OD) concepts to the model. OD definitions typically include terms such as 'a long term process,' 'attempts to increase organizational effectiveness,' 'uses behavioral sciences,' and 'integrates the employees' growth and development desires with organizational goals.' A variety of methods appropriate in OD programs include sensitivity training, participative management, job enrichment, management by objectives, and the managerial grid (Gibson et al., 1982). All of these methods may contribute to the model's success to varying degrees.

The OCE contract managers perceive a primary responsibility in terms of the model's fulfilling eight distinguishing characteristics which identify valid OD efforts. The model obviously (1) addresses planning; (2) problem-orientation is demonstrated in using behavioral sciences theory and research; and the model certainly (3) reflects a systems approach which is (4) integral to the corporate management process. The OCE, as an external agent, is not "doing OD to" ARH. The model (5) reflects a continuous and ongoing process rather than encouraging a "one-shot fix-it" strategy to prevail. Finally, the model (6) focuses on improvement, (7) is action oriented, and (8) is based on sound theory and practice of a number of disciplines (Margulies & Raia, 1978).

This dimension of educational leadership is challenging but more than worth the time invested and effort expended. External leadership of this nature will result in a broad base of internal leadership being developed and will validate the model and the alliance.

Systemwide Networking

A reservoir of instructional resources currently exists in the ARH system. Projectors, videotape equipment, films, slide-tapes, print materials, etc. are in use at various sites. To achieve optimum utilization of these instructional materials and to assure cost effectiveness in funds expended for educational purposes, a current inventory is needed and some centralization and coordination functions will be developed to create a greater degree of collaboration among ARH facilities.

Other excellent resources offer networking potential as CE, inservice, and community education programs are developed and offered by various services in different hospitals. The experience of the ARH personnel resulting from these programs can be shared within the total ARH system with others whose responsibilities for planning and programming are similar. There exists, also, the need to consider standardization of certain training programs which are applicable to selected employees at all sites.

Instructional personnel present another dimension for networking consideration. This is already an informal arrangement in some instances when a person from one hospital is asked to conduct a designated program at another hospital. The identification, further development, and networking of instructional expertise can make possible a "train the trainer" approach within the system. In addition to being available for consultative assistance in this component of the model, the CAHP-OCE offers another avenue for "training the trainer." Instructional design and presentation skills in terms of the adult learner could be major contributions from an educational perspective (Cross, 1982).

Networking offers much potential in this model's design. The development of continuity through shared expertise within the system can provide longterm benefits and realize cost effectiveness to each hospital as well as to the entire system (Kennedy, 1979; Tarlov, et al, 1979).

Cost Effectiveness Potential

Many of the disciplines represented on the ARH staffs are required to participate in continuing education in order to maintain licensure, a requisite for continued employment. ARH is committed to facilitating the involvement of these employees in MCE. ARH also recognizes the contribution of education and training for all employees in terms of job performance, commitment, satisfaction, and retention. To this end, each of the 10 facilities has an nursing inservice coordinator and at least a part-time education coordinator. While these coordinators have attempted to provide training services for as many personnel as possible, they have been limited in many cases due to a lack of equipment, financial, and personnel resources. Those who represent the greatest number are served. This may or may not, however, represent the greatest need.

In general, it simply has not been cost effective to serve a single discipline which may be represented by only one or two persons within a single hospital. More often than not, they are invited to participate in programs of general interest to a broad range of health care providers rather than those focused on specific professional updating or clinical needs they may have. While these underrepresented disciplines may attend CE away from their facilities -- (and this cross-fertilization is a component of the total CE picture) -- a much greater expense in terms of time and money occurs.

Systemwide planning, on the other hand, allows for the aggregation of all representatives of these underrepresented disciplines at one central location within the ARH system. It also allows for health care providers within the region but not employed by ARH to participate in ARH sponsored programming. Thus some costs can be distributed to persons outside the ARH system.

SUMMARY

This model represents a unique opportunity for a hospital system and a university to work collaboratively to provide systematic and comprehensive staff development activities for health care professionals. The success of the model depends on the integration of the five components of the model: input from all disciplines and hospitals; comprehensive, non-duplicative planning; educational leadership from the university; pooling existing resources; and providing training on a more cost effective basis to all hospital employees. The model demonstrates an alliance which can be developed and which can effectively link the resources of a university to the educational needs of an organization.

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AN ANALYSIS OF SHIFTING INSTITUTIONAL PHILOSOPHY WITHIN THE WORLD
OF PRIVATE PHILANTHROPY - IMPLICATIONS FOR LIFELONG LEARNING

Frederic P. Gardner¹

Abstract

The one hundred largest private foundations play a significant role in funding activities relating to lifelong learning. Executives recognize the scope of foundation activity is typically broad and that it encompasses more than direct support of existing formal educational activity. Often lifelong learning activity is listed under "human services" or "community service" rather than "education" in annual reports. Awareness of lifelong learning as an important concept appears to be increasing. Increased use of educators as consultants will expedite this awareness.

INTRODUCTION

Philanthropy, long the bastion of the rich and strong-willed, has been professionalized. Highly trained managers now operate the various foundations and trusts. While there are thousands of such organizations and several varieties of corporate intent, it is fair to say that operationally, they tend to adhere to similar staffing and organizational procedures. This study examines a sample of the leadership of the largest philanthropic organizations as they view possible trends in supporting the concept, "Lifelong Learning". Have these organizations, as a result of professionalization, increased government scrutiny and competition for funds become less likely to take risks or to advocate social change? Do they see learning as a lifelong experience, and how do they respond?

PURPOSE

John M. Russell, in his nearly classic work on foundations, asserts, (1974:49) "...it is patently clear that foundations have been concerned all along with education--from pre-schooling to graduate education, and adult education--education from birth to death."² What does not always come through is awareness on the part of foundations of the extent of its involvement in education. The concept of lifelong learning is relatively new. One of the purposes of this study is to assist foundations in becoming aware of the real nature of their activities.

Foundations are shifting priorities as times change. The utility of insights into their intent is obvious. We need to know something of the direction in which the wind is blowing prior to setting sail. While the studies of annual reports and official histories is useful, it is felt that brief comments summarized and interpreted might prove useful. While not clearly scientific, this is one of the purposes of this study. The idea of lifelong learning as a concept worthy of foundation support is clearly one of significance.

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The survey instrument invites foundation leaders to speculate on whether they tend to fund formal or informal educational projects. By formal is meant credit bearing activities such as degree programs. The scale of 1-5 is used with formal represented by "1" and informal by "5". The reason for this question is that fund seekers planning life-long activities need to know the relative distribution of funds.

The second question asks whether the foundation employs educational consultants to evaluate programs. Again there is a 1-5 scale. A "yes" response is a 1. A "sometimes" response is represented by 3, and a "no" is indicated by the number 5. This is seen as useful in terms of how proposals might be written.

The third question deals directly with lifelong learning and asks whether the percentage of funds allocated to lifelong learning has changed reflecting increased awareness of this special audience. Again a 1-5 scale is used. The idea is to see if leaders perceive changes.

Finally, an open ended question is included asking for general comment concerning the direction the leaders see their own foundation taking at the present time. Analysis of responses here takes the form of summary and does not lend itself to tabular representation.

METHODOLOGY

Investigation included administration of a brief survey and a cover letter to leaders of the one hundred largest American foundations. The Foundation Center's latest COMSEARCH is titled "1,000 Largest Foundations by Grants". The list includes title, state, total giving, grants amount, number of grants and asset amount.

The cover letter offers a definition of lifelong learning by Malcolm Knowles as, "coming to mean the organization of the total educational enterprise as one continual process from birth to death". The letter further explains the purpose of the survey, who is being surveyed and the audience likely to share the results. It ends with a request for a recent annual report.

The one hundred largest foundations run the gamut in size from over two billion dollars (Ford) to under six million dollars in assets (Bank America Foundation). They are diverse in origin but similar in organizational structure. The executive is described in the literature as similar to the University President.

Taking the hundred largest foundations and generalizing about them is difficult. However, some averages can be stated. In Table I figures tell something about the nature and scope of current foundation activity:

Table I The Hundred Largest Foundations by Total Grants*

Total grants amount	\$961,243,806	Average grant	\$30,500
Total number of grants	31,501	Average number of grants	315

*Source: The Foundation Center, New York City, COMSEARCH #302 "1,000 Largest Foundations by Grants, 1980".

The hundred foundations cited in the COMSEARCH printout are included in the figures cited in Table I. However, in terms of the survey results only 97 were actually surveyed. In one case, two Exxon foundations were combined and in the other two cases the corporations had been dissolved.

Table II Formal Versus Informal Foundation Sponsorship of Educational Activities

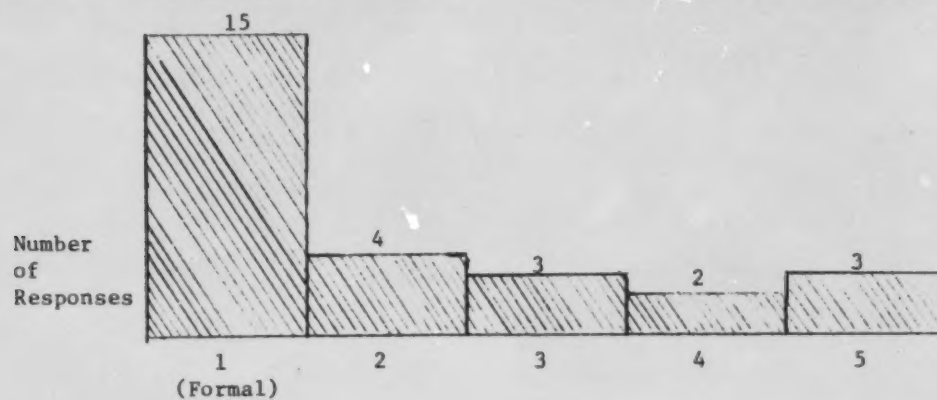


Table III Employ Consultants from the Education World to Evaluate Programs

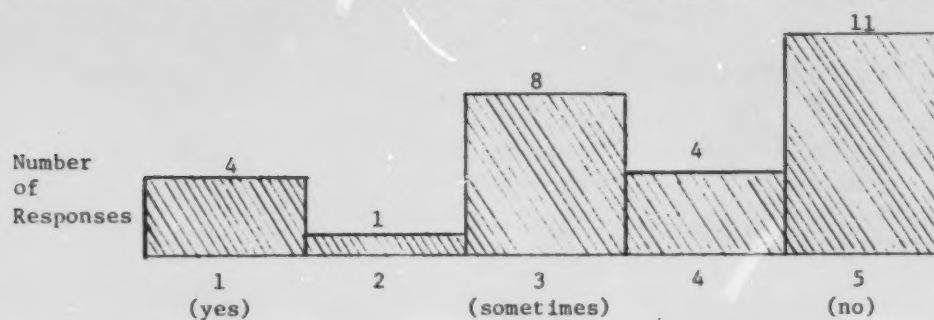
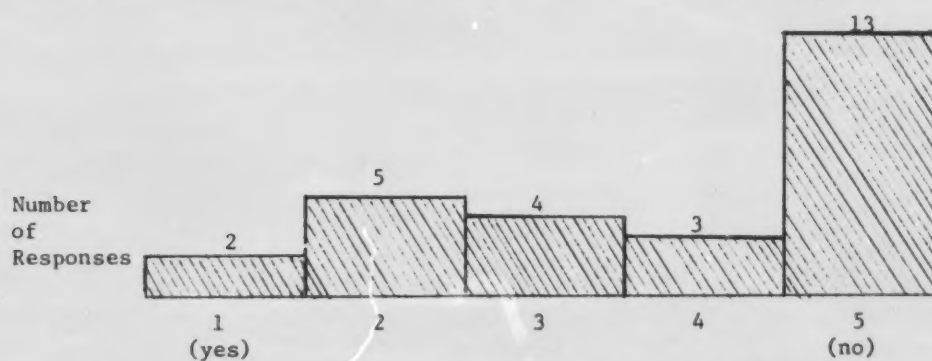


Table IV Funds Allocated to Lifelong Projects Increasing?



The fourth question deals with general impressions about the direction the foundation is taking. The comments in this area were somewhat disappointing. Examples follow: "We have not supported lifelong learning projects for several years and do not expect to do so in the foreseeable future," "No emphasis one way or the other on this subject," "All of our available funds are committed to programs designed to fulfill specific mission objectives," ". . . our grants neglect lifelong learning, although we believe in the concept that people should keep on learning," "We do not have a formally identified program called lifelong learning," ". . . phased out its program in the field of education and no new commitments in this area are anticipated." Others left this question blank or merely referred to enclosed annual reports.

Several respondents indicate a desire to see an abstract of the study.

DISCUSSION

Lifelong learning as a concept has not become part of the vocabulary of foundation staff members. A clear preference for the more formal educational activities exists indicating support for existing programs in well-established institutions. Examples are graduate fellowships, support for library acquisitions, and faculty development grants. However, funds from foundations tend to support research projects which relate to child development and gerontology leading to the conclusion that academic activity relating to lifelong learning takes place, but does not get designated as such in reports. (Table II)

Consultants employed by foundations appear to be primarily utilized for program evaluation purposes. Several annual reports discuss the evaluation process in terms of getting a non-biased or objective opinion on how well a particular project is completed. There does not appear to be widespread use of educators as consultants to select programs for funding. The potential for lifelong learning experts to influence foundations seems underdeveloped. (Table III)

Concerning allocation of funds for lifelong learning, no clear pattern exists. It is not clear that the term, "lifelong learning", enjoys currency and therefore defies analysis somewhat on the part of foundation executives. There is a larger educational task awaiting educators if lifelong learning research and activities are to be widely understood by the foundations. (Table IV)

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PROBLEMS IN CREATING A COMPREHENSIVE ADULT EDUCATION
INSTITUTION IN A DEVELOPING COUNTRY:
THE CASE OF PERU

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Abstract

Assisting a developing country in establishing a functioning adult education institution is not a one-way affair--of their learning from us. We can, and must, learn from and with them if our efforts are to be effective. Situations that arise in developing countries are rich with opportunity for us to learn. The development of an agricultural extension institution in Peru provides a case in point.

Many developing countries undertake to create and make operational comprehensive adult education institutions in a relatively short time. In situations of limited previous experience in organizing and managing comprehensive educational institutions, problems arise both in creating them and in enabling those who staff them to perform in a manner that fulfills the mission envisioned. The situation in Peru provides a case in point.

An attempt is being made to create an agricultural extension capacity throughout Peru and to demonstrate both a presence and an impact of consequence in a relatively short time. To accomplish such a feat, a number of major tasks must be accomplished quickly: (1) creating an organizational structure that will make possible the allocation and management of resources and program efforts throughout the country; (2) staffing the organization with personnel who have the potential for carrying out the mission envisioned; (3) developing and implementing a system for training personnel in fulfilling individual responsibilities and enabling units of the organization to develop the capacity to function effectively; (4) coordinating planning and execution of educational efforts with those of research intended to generate the knowledge base; and (5) overcoming a bureaucratizing tendency typical of governmental agencies, tradition and the historical experience of many who staff the agency. In the case of Peru, as in many developing countries, the extension mission focuses on agricultural and other problems of the rural population.

North Carolina State University (NCSU) has contracted, through the Agency for International Development, to assist Peru in this venture. The NCSU Mission activities were initiated in mid-1982. The institution which is to provide extension services to rural areas, as well as to conduct research (Instituto Nacional de Investigacion y Promocion Agropecuaria, and referred to as INIPA), was being inaugurated in early 1982.

THE SITUATION

As a point of background, an extension organization and program existed in Peru at the time of the military government take-over in 1968. That program had developed over a period of some 15 years. The military government disassembled both the extension and agricultural research programs. For a period of 12 years prior to the inauguration of the present effort, there was no organized public extension activity in the country.

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The present organization is structured with a central headquarters (located in Lima), and 18 "regional" offices. These regional offices correspond, to a large extent, with the geographic divisions of the government. These offices are called centers of research and extension (Centros de Investigacion y Promocion Agropecuaria). These centers (CIPAs) are expected to function with some degree of autonomy. Each CIPA is divided into zones (with zones responsible for both research and extension). For purposes of extension, zones are subdivided into agencies and agencies into sectors. A sector is the smallest geographic division staffed for extension activities. The 18 CIPAs are divided into 36 zones; the 36 zones into 227 agencies; and the 227 agencies into 1,213 sectors.

Extension work at the level of agencies and sectors is intended to serve the independent operators of small and medium sized farms (farmers with from about 2 to 50 acres). For purposes of serving these operators of "small" and "medium" sized farms, extension has been organized by what is called the "Training and Visit System" (T&V) (Benor and Harrison, 1977). An Israeli consulting firm (TAHAL) is assisting in establishing the system. There are 52 different international agencies and organizations providing funds in support of a variety of projects in research and extension in agriculture.

The situation is even more complicated. There are three different ideas to be accommodated in the extension efforts on behalf of independent operators of small and medium sized farms: (1) the Training and Visit System which focuses on transmitting recommended agricultural practices through contact (demonstration) farmers; (2) the expressed intention of developing what is being called a comprehensive extension program to serve not only the farmer but the home (adults and youth) and rural communities and institutions (similar to what is reported to have existed prior to 1968); and (3) a system of "national programs" focusing on the development of five basic agricultural commodities and the Selva (jungle region). There are other complicating factors. For example, the work of INIPA is to be accomplished through the use of funds appropriated nationally from tax revenues and from funds and other resources being provided by international sources. There is no previous experience with undertaking to coordinate extension and research through organizational mechanisms.

However, it may be too early to judge the situation as impossible. The 1,213 sectors into which the country has been divided are 93 percent staffed. Even though personnel are being paid very low salaries and provided with meager resource support, they appear anxious to succeed. They are anxiously seeking training to prepare themselves to perform their functions more adequately. Some very innovative adaptations have been made of the T&V System, even though the system, as prescribed, lays out a pattern for organizing and conducting extension work which can be (and has been in many situations) considered very fixed and rigid.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

Preliminary judgments have been made and put forward as suggestions to the institution. These suggestions have been made as possible means by which the organization can further develop its capacity to fulfill its mission. The judgments have been made on the basis of: (1) observing (on a limited basis) the organization in action and interacting with personnel at all levels in relation to extension (the national headquarters staff and units, the regional or CIPA units, the zone units, agencies and sectors, including observations of extensionistas interacting with farmers); (2) interacting with others who have had opportunity to observe and study the situation (including the International Potato Center (CIP), the National Agricultural University and the Israeli experts); and (3) interacting with colleagues in the NCSU Mission. The suggestions put forth will be discussed in two related areas: (1) organizational development (including inservice training) and (2) a graduate curriculum in extension education at the National Agricultural University (Universidad Nacional Agraria) for the preparation of extension personnel.

Organizational Development

The Instituto Nacional de Investigacion y Promocion Agropecuaria (INIPA) faces many of the same challenges any newly created organization might face. It may also face some special challenges. It is faced with not only being able to achieve a presence throughout the country in a relatively short time, it must be able to demonstrate an impact. That impact must be demonstrated while achieving an acceptance by the farmers and rural communities who have developed a suspicion and distrust of governmental agencies.

The following have been proposed as being essential to the organization's effective and efficient functioning:

1. That concerted effort be directed toward a more careful determination of organizational priorities--both short and long range. Since resources are limited, it is necessary that those available be directed toward high priority purposes which have the potential for bringing about short-range, observable impacts and which, at the same time, will contribute to critically important long-range objectives.
2. That the impact of the organization will be achieved through the efforts of its personnel performing individual and collective functions at a reasonably adequate level of competence. Personnel available for staffing the organization do not bring the necessary competence into the organization at the time of employment. A massive training effort is demanded.
3. That the mission of the organization cannot be accomplished solely through the efforts of individual staff members performing their own independent functions, however competent and effective they may be. Collective unit effort is required. Purposeful and conscious effort must be directed toward learning how to achieve such an integration.
4. That if an integrated organizational effort is to be achieved, activities directed toward its achievement must be guided by a unified dedication to a common mission. That requirement exists both within the extension thrust and between the extension and research thrusts. The challenge is not made easier by the fact that extension and research personnel operate in work environments which typically define problems from substantially different orientations. Researchers, typically, formulate their program efforts from a discipline orientation. Extension workers formulate their program efforts from a problem-orientation (problems that exist in the normal processes of daily human affairs and existence).

To deal with the challenges just outlined, it has been proposed that a unit be formulated whose responsibilities would be "organizational development." Functions to be performed would include: (1) diagnosing needs and providing training/education within units of the organization; (2) diagnosing organizational and operational problems, designing and testing possible modes for correcting deficiencies and putting into place modes of staffing and operating demonstrated to increase efficiency/effectiveness; and (3) providing the organization's leadership with counsel as to demands that will be placed upon the resources by the pursuit of alternatives considered when decisions are being formulated.

Graduate Curriculum in Extension Education

External funds provide for support to selected INIPA personnel for pursuing graduate study as a means of better preparing them for their responsibilities. There has not existed within Universidad Nacional Agraria a focus or capacity to provide graduate education experience for those who wish to become better prepared to function as educators in extension. However, the university is interested in developing such a capacity. A graduate curriculum in extension education at the Master's level is being developed. The first students have started a program of study. The program is to include study in subjects related to education in extension and technical agricultural subjects in crop production.

A collaboration has been proposed for developing the following: (1) curriculum mechanisms for causing and enabling students to integrate what they study in education and agricultural science; (2) experiences in inquiry that require the use of ideas from both

areas of study (including needs assessment as a basis for planning programs and research undertaken as a basis for a thesis); and (3) a truly interdisciplinary program of study.

The intent is to develop and provide a graduate curriculum for extension workers that will prepare them to help (enable) farmers and their families to deal with their problems in such a manner that they become increasingly better managers of their own problems and potentials. Such an orientation is substantially different from one where the farmer calls in some expert to "fix" a problem existing with his crop, perhaps as you might do if you were experiencing a problem with your car and called on a mechanic to fix the car's problem.

INTERPRETATIONS

At least two broad options are open to personnel of United States institutions who undertake to assist developing countries in establishing adult education institutions: (1) to report to them ways institutions are organized and function in the United States and help them try to adopt similar modes of organizing and functioning--we undertake to help them learn from us; or (2) to draw upon some reasonably well formulated and developed cognitive maps demonstrated to be useful in diagnosing situations, in designing institutions to respond to the situations as analyzed, in organizing and developing the capacity needed to respond, and in acquiring the competence required to function reasonably effectively--we collaborate with them in ways we learn from each other to our mutual benefits. The history of United States attempts in assisting developing countries suggests that most of our efforts have been directed toward trying to help them do what is done in the United States; we are there (in the developing country) to have them learn from us. Our success with such an orientation has fallen short of expectations.

Does our limited success suggest that we intensify like efforts? Or does it mean we may have had a mistaken view of the opportunities available to us? For some time now some scholars have suggested that we have been following a misguided perception of our opportunities; that we should expect to learn as much or more from and with our counterparts in developing countries as they learn from us (Institute of Development Studies, 1979). The fallacy that the entire transaction involves only their learning from us is analogous to researchers who set out to find "the solution" to farmers' problems, relying entirely on their own determination of what the farmers' problems are. That fallacy has been vividly demonstrated by an interdisciplinary research team (of social and natural scientists) of the International Potato Center. The researchers' solution to the farmers' problems with storing potatoes was not being accepted by farmers. The interdisciplinary research team set out to learn from the farmers. They learned. Through a shared learning collaboration the research team came to recognize what could make a difference. They have substantial evidence that the means devised collaboratively does make a difference. It is making a difference--and in many developing countries of the world where potatoes are grown (Rhoades and Booth, 1982).

It is coming to be recognized that farmers throughout the third world have, over generations, developed indigenous technologies that have enabled them to survive. Ignoring these indigenous technologies in the interest of imposing new ("modern") technologies has met with limited success, at best. There is substantial interest in and effort being directed toward learning what these indigenous technologies are and how they have been developed with the intent of collaboratively figuring out what new technologies might be incorporated (not substituted) that would enable farmers to improve their situations.

What is the possible connection between figuring out what might help farmers improve their situations and a process of attempting to assist an adult education institution to become established in an effectively functioning and efficient manner? The connection is this: What is being "discovered" as a more effective approach to enabling the operators of small farms to improve their situations is demonstrating that all parties to the effort learn from and with each other. Yes, even in research! Two examples will be cited of efforts to assist INIPA in developing its capacity to provide an effective nonformal educational program for farmers of Peru (an extension service). The situations out of which these examples arise have been sketched in the preceding sections.

First, as part of the internal organizational development efforts of INIPA, a comprehensive inservice activity is being planned for key extension personnel of the 18 CIPAs. Staff members of the inservice training unit of INIPA responsible for planning and conducting this course are anxious that it be effective (meaning that it make a demonstrable difference in the way these extension staff members perform key functions of their jobs). One of the observed problems with inservice training in extension in the United States is the limited impact the training provided is having on what occurs on the job. We badly need examples and evidence of approaches that can and do make detectable differences in performance on the job. We (the United States) and the Peruvians share a common problem/opportunity. I will be collaborating with the inservice training unit of INIPA in designing and developing a comprehensive inservice training course for the purpose of seeing what we can learn from trying an approach to training that may have a demonstrable impact on job performance. We may learn something of mutual benefit.

The Universidad Nacional Agraria is anxious to develop a graduate curriculum that will enable extension personnel to more adequately perform their roles of assisting farmers in improving their conditions. To perform their function, these extension personnel must draw upon matters related to designing and conducting educational opportunities and have those educational opportunities draw upon matters of scientific agriculture. We face the same challenge at North Carolina State University. Our existing curricula (either in extension education or scientific agriculture or some mixture of the two) are not meeting our needs satisfactorily, according to my own observations and those of others.

We are entering into a collaboration with the Universidad Nacional Agraria in helping them evolve a workable and useful curriculum in extension education that integrates matters of education and scientific plant production in such manner that students become more adequately prepared to function as extension educators. As experience is gained with possible mechanisms and approaches that seem to work in Peru, I will undertake to initiate efforts at NCSU with the same purpose in mind--to develop a graduate curriculum that more adequately incorporates and integrates, into the graduate experience, the technological and behavioral components of the job of an extension educator.

Problems in creating comprehensive adult education institutions in developing countries have to do with working within the situations that exist, and as they exist, to help them evolve institutions adequate to serve their purposes and aspirations. Doing so offers almost unlimited opportunities for us (the United States) to learn from and with them (collaboratively) matters that will enable us to improve our own conditions. To accomplish such a feat, we may best serve our opportunities to help developing countries, and in turn be helped, by entering the interactions with reasonably well formulated ideas to guide development efforts--but not with preconceived solutions that we have observed "working for us." We may need to engage in the interactions and collaborations with a view of learning as much that will contribute to our own institutions as we may be able to contribute to theirs.

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THE PRACTICE, PRIORITIES, AND PROBLEMS OF ADULT EDUCATION
IN THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

Sanford Lopater¹

Abstract

A visit to the Federal Republic of Germany was made for the purpose of studying the administration of adult education during the summer of 1982. Seven organizations were visited. Their specialized functions and coordination are described here. The implications of their practices are discussed in light of American adult education needs.

There is a necessity for study, analysis, and development of adult education in the United States and all modern industrialized nations. Several demographic and social factors dictate this undertaking: (1) Late first careers among women are becoming commonplace. (2) Multiple careers are a consequence of increased life expectancy. (3) There are poorly developed procedures in most professions for competency renewal certification. (4) Accelerated technological development in many fields necessitates continuing education. (5) adult education enterprises are often incompatible with an educational system focused on specialized baccalaureate and advanced degrees. (6) Lifelong learning for reasons of personal enrichment, independent of occupational advancement, is too often an unexplored facet of adult psychological development. Such development could conceivably contribute to a politically more astute and artistically more aware citizenry.

American higher education has traditionally assessed and met the prevocational requirements of 18 to 22 year old men and women. For most recipients of advanced degrees the obligation to maintain current skills and knowledge is left to the discretion and inclination of the individual; there is too little provision made by employers and larger professional organizations to encourage, fund, monitor, and reward a record of continued learning. adult education in America, whether professional, vocational, or recreational, has only as ill-defined place in our overall educational system.

It is plain and apparent that the Federal Republic of Germany has established clear priorities in adult education and has allocated significant financial resources to this facet of their general educational system. Today, over ten million citizens are involved in teaching, learning, and administration; 200,000 people are involved in over 900 television, radio, and correspondence courses offered yearly. As recently as 1977, 3.8 million students took 225,000 courses in 15 different subject areas offered through the Deutscher Volkshochschul-Verband; 1,700 full-time staff and 82,000 part-time course leaders taught them. Students attended 900 Volkshochschulen with over 4,200 branches. In 1970 the Federal Further Education budget was 179 million DM; by 1985 the anticipated allocation will be 709 million DM.

The objectives of this research are relevant to the organization and implementation of lifelong learning programs in the United States as well as other modern industrialized nations. These include an analysis of the means by which the facilities, faculties, and philosophies of older, established universities have assisted the national mission of adult

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education, its curriculum development and implementation. Secondly, this study assesses mechanisms of state educational assistance for adult education, specifically the "Labor Promotion Act." Thirdly, this research reveals the usage and coordination of radio, television, and correspondence in adult education and the means by which pedagogical techniques, media production procedures, and correlative instructional publications comprise a cohesive educational experience. Finally, the role of political, civic, economic, and neohumanistic adult education offerings in the intellectual life of the German citizenry is discussed.

SITE VISITATIONS: A DIVERSITY OF MISSIONS AND METHODS

In order to derive some meaningful, coherent synthesis of different traditions, trends, and perspectives, seven organizations were visited: The Pedagogical Working Group of the German Folk High School Association (Frankfurt), The Bund-Länder Commission for Educational Planning and Promotion of Research (Bonn), The University of Dortmund's Center for Adult Education and Contact Studies, The Federation of Adult Education Centers (Bonn), The Federal Minister of Education and Culture (Bonn), The Working Group of University Adult Educators (Hannover), and the Central State Office of Education by Correspondence (Hagen).

The Volkshochschulen

One area of adult education curricular concern to all these public and private organizations involves an issue relevant to both the political and educational characteristics of the Federal Republic of Germany: the role of lifelong learning in a functional German democracy. There can be no doubt that Germany's recovery from the Second World War is due in large part to the traditions of intellectual integrity of her citizens (Huddleston, 1967; Dolff, 1972; Personal Communication, 1982). An assumption pervasive among German adult educators is that liberal learning fosters informed, insightful participation in government at all levels. It is widely felt that the philosophy and governance of all important social institutions should reflect the practical application of democratic ideals. In particular, the Volkshochschulen (Folk High Schools) were reopened in 1945-46 by the Federal Republic of Germany with the explicit objective of demonstrating productive benefits of democratic administrative procedures (Dolff, Personal Communication, 1982). The Federal Republic of Germany was at this time incorporating 10 million refugees into its society and the Folk High Schools were instrumental in facilitating their assimilation.

Popular Folk High School enrollments include foreign language study, computer programming, secretarial courses, the fine arts, and political science; natural and social sciences also enjoy heavy enrollments. Women comprise 69% of these students. Two additional characteristics of these lifelong learners need to be noted. Firstly, Germans tend to be wary of the media and want a formal forum in which they can discuss all sides of contemporary political concerns; the Folk High Schools provide just such an opportunity. Secondly, after the war there was a gradual increase in the amount of compulsory education and it has by now been determined within Germany that the more primary and secondary education one has received, the greater his inclination to continue some formal learning scheme throughout the life span (Pflüger, Personal Communication, 1982). An additional significant psychological aspect of adult education within the Folk High Schools is that their offerings are instrumental in bringing the adult learner out of his daily participation in traditional social institutions (home, work, church), offering new surroundings, acquaintances, and challenges. Those rurally isolated as well as those in urban enclaves are reached; geographical and age segregation are compromised. The importance and success of this aspect of the Folk High Schools stands in contrast to the ideas of theorists (Bergevin, 1967) who would have adult education enterprises as part of one's current social institutions.

The Universities

The role of the traditional German universities in adult education has long been a controversial subject and remains so today. Much of this discord stems from a necessity to forge some conceptual balance among three powerful influences in German higher education.

These include the von Humboldt tradition of the German university as totally autonomous, elitist institutions, the new democratic administrative spirit in a variety of adult education enterprises (including those intended for learners far beyond customary university age), and a socialist perspective on the entitlements of workers in the universities. There is currently much discussion regarding the role of the universities in adult education in the future; demographic factors forecast they may benefit substantially from internal changes which would accommodate the enrollment of adult learners. The postwar baby boom is now peaking; universities are extremely overcrowded. Undergraduates manifest a spirit of romanticism, idealism, and social concern in the selection of their curricula; explicitly prevocational studies are far less popular. There is a great similarity to American college campuses of the 1960's.

It is widely recognized that after 1985 university enrollments will begin to drop with a concomitant decrease in their funding levels. In view of these anticipated enrollment changes, the West German Rectors Conference has suggested three possible roles the universities may play in the future. They may develop programs in extramural education and give assistance to less advanced institutions. Or they may embark on programs of professional development for their own staff (Lellmann, Personal Communication, 1982). In general, the traditional autonomy of German universities makes it difficult to incorporate their facilities in long-range national policy planning (Jobst, Personal Communication, 1982).

State Educational Assistance for Adult Learners

Several mechanisms of federal financial assistance are available to help adult learners. Conspicuous among these is the Labor Promotion Act. Under the provisions of this law, workers may receive grant monies equal to 80% of their last net income for vocational retraining in cases of job obsolescence as well as additional funds to cover tuition and study materials. This law also provides support for further education for those not changing occupations. This law was designed to assist currently unemployed workers and retrain them in specific areas of national need. This act also provides funds for those who are unemployed and in times of high unemployment much money is diverted to this purpose. In order to qualify for this assistance a worker must have actively sought employment for a period of one year.

Another innovative mechanism of federal assistance in Adult Education concerns the preparation of military retirees for reassimilation to civilian life in specific occupations. A member of the military is eligible for retirement after 12 years of service. He will receive a cash lump sum of approximately \$10,000 at that time and is eligible for enrollment at one of two military universities in Hamburg or Munich. There he will be trained in an area of civilian employment and earn a widely respected certificate at the same time (Fritsch, H., Personal Communication, 1982). Tuition is subsidized by the government.

Students attending Folk High Schools also receive some subsidy from both the community in which the school is located and the "Lander" or "state" in which the community is located. Folk High School's tuition is relatively inexpensive at approximately 60 DM per course in view of these supports.

Since 1980 the University of Dortmund has administered the "Altenakademie," a program designed to open the universities to adults without the necessary formal prerequisites. These students, age 45 to 72, are enrolled as "guest students" and pay a minimal fee of 75 DM per semester. The curriculum includes nonpreprofessional interdisciplinary studies; the program is heavily subsidized by the Ministry of Science and Education and the German counterpart of our own National Institute on Aging (Veelken, L., Personal Communication, 1982). A one-semester orientation program familiarizes these students with facilities, resources, and general characteristics of university life. Generally, these students are enthusiastic and industrious, are grateful for a long-overdue opportunity to learn, avidly pursue refresher courses, and can be seen to approach mid-life with equanimity and self-assurance in view of this novel, challenging opportunity.

Correspondence Opportunities

During the 1981-82 academic year the Fernuniversität, West Germany's foremost vehicle of correspondence education, had 22,000 students taking courses. The average student age is 26 years and 80% of them have jobs; most take courses in preparation for a second career. The expense of these courses (about \$100 per course), their rigor, and the necessary time commitment dissuade the recreational adult learner. These courses are soundly conceived, carefully prepared, and assessed by a panel of specialists before they are offered (Fritsch, H., Personal Communication, 1982). Before beginning the course, the student is mailed a pre-study questionnaire describing the nature of independent-study and solicits information about the student's study habits, work and family commitments, and background level of education. The student is asked to describe his personal circumstances and to reflect upon the ways in which these might be affected by significant time investments in private study. On the basis of this profile, the student is sent a candid assessment of his potential to learn satisfactorily in a correspondence situation; this information is offered non-judgmentally.

In general, the offerings of the Fernuniversität are intended for serious, goal-oriented students who have well-developed skills in independent scholarship. They are not the type of students who can enroll in a full-time academic program without considering their families and jobs.

Summary

German adult education is comprised of a wealth and diversity of specialized sectors with seemingly little coordination of these several institutions. However, effort and funds have been recently allotted to the necessary articulation of these formidable resources; the Working Group of University Adult Educators (AUE) was formed in 1969 with this objective. This organization is concerned with both philosophical and administrative aspects of adult education while at the same time offering a retraining course for educators who want to work exclusively with adults (Hegar, H., Personal Communication, 1982). Significantly, AUE's programs allow for accomplished practitioners of business, industry, and government to earn a prestigious teaching credential and become an integral part of a high quality adult education faculty. This organization publishes reports of its research projects, circulates questionnaires and interprets the feedback, and acts as a general clearinghouse in adult education while at the same time acting as a coherent voice of advocacy in the larger national political arena.

A particularly interesting and flexible aspect of German adult education involves the variety of widely respected certificates and diplomas which may be earned during short, intensive periods of study. Adults need not return to universities for prolonged degree-oriented curricula; they need not leave their jobs or relocate their families for the sake of further study. Meaningful credentials may be earned through the Fernuniversität or local Folk High Schools. This flexibility and diversity seems an attractive and even necessary innovation deserving serious and thorough consideration in America.

German adult education, although highly specialized, lacks organizational cohesion. Despite this, the Federal Republic of Germany is affording its citizens a wealth of opportunities for lifelong learning, vocational retraining, and the certification of competency renewal.

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INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF
ADULT EDUCATION: A REVIEW AND CRITIQUE

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Abstract

This paper clarifies connections among policy, planning, and evaluation, especially as associated with intergovernmental strategies for the development of adult education. In doing so, the paper argues first that the advancement of adult education policy leads inevitably to "system," i.e., integration into public (government-mandated) education systems. Secondly, manpower development is examined as an adult education planning strategy and found limited; in this regard, the "cultural" approach to planning is reviewed. Evaluation is then analyzed not as a process or tool but as an expression of the values underlying policy and planning. Accordingly, the focus of intergovernmental agency evaluations on cost statistics is criticized as an inadequate measure of the merit of adult education programs.

While intended as a review and critique of intergovernmental strategies, this paper hopes to draw further attention to national issues in adult education and to foster consideration of the impact of international strategies on adult education policy, planning and evaluation.

INTRODUCTION

Few critical assessments of international adult education policies, planning and programmatic practices exist. An exception, to my knowledge, is the frank and open discussion of The Experimental World Literacy Programme endorsed by the EWLP sponsors: Unesco and the United Nations Development Programme (1). Otherwise, most critical comment has been in the form of attacks on the general lack of power and lugubrious modus operandi of international organizations, attacks which often fail to recognize that the U.N. Agencies and other intergovernmental bodies are purposely limited in their powers by their Member States and this limitation in turn affects the procedural cautiousness, procrastination and ponderousness for which the organizations are known. Unesco, for instance, has been described as an elderly lady with multiple long skirts who will not be hurried. But this criticism of the intergovernmental organizations themselves is, in my view, misaimed and wrongheaded; it overlooks the present inevitability of the limitations of international organizations, since Member States want it that way.

More significant and less treated are the explicit and implicit purposes and goals of intergovernmental organizations as they relate to adult education as an aspect, of national development. A review of these purposes and goals seems apt because it reflects, I would argue, the major global perspectives on adult education's viable role in national development. Ultimately, it is society's attitude toward education which determines the way in which education's contribution to society is perceived, and often enough this perception is actualized through institutionalized expressions of a people's social philosophy. The

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efforts of international organizations to influence social attitudes as well as institutional developments toward education of adults, and the way in which these efforts are advanced, is this paper's general subject.

In reviewing international policies, planning and programmatic practices, I critique certain aspects of each and briefly indicate additional concerns and other options for the development of adult education. I argue that the intergovernmental organizations, despite occasional rhetoric to the contrary, are bent on institutionalizing adult education "systems" across the globe--a position which deserves considerable analysis and discussion for it implies significant and long-range consequences. These implications are not lessened by the fact that international organizations present nation states with specific options for the development of adult education systems.

Planning is the result of policy--explicit or implicit--and the determinant of program development and, by extension, the guidepost for programmatic practices, such as evaluation. Educational planning today reflects concerns with national development, especially economic priorities. Since I am speaking from the vantage point of an American whose national system is a federal one with undulating debate over state's rights, a distinction between "national" and "nationwide" is in order. The latter terminology was originally used in the late 1960s by James Bryant Conant (2) to distinguish between federal (national) and states-initiated (nationwide) policy for education. The United States remains one of the few federal systems in the world with a fundamentally decentralized system of education, a system which appeared to be moving toward greater centralization over the fifty-year period from 1930 to 1980, culminating in the inauguration of the U. S. Department of Education in 1980. With the election of President Reagan, this "trend" appears to be reversed. But the value of planning for educational development remains, especially as it purports to foster economic well-being.

The third facet of this paper's discussion highlights the circularity of the process of policy formulation, planning and program development, emphasizing that evaluation is always undertaken with a view to facilitating planning or policy formulation (or change). In recognizing the symbioses between evaluation and planning and between evaluation and policy formulation, the present paper underlines the impracticality of over-valuing short-term, economic indicators of program success in an area of social concern, such as adult education, where success ultimately depends on long-range outcomes and impact.

The paper concludes its review and analysis by emphasizing the options that exist internationally for formulating policies for adult education, for designing plans that approach adult education as a "cultural" as well as economic factor in national development, and for evaluating adult-education programs in ways that take cognizance of, but don't overvalue, short-term cost statistics.

While clarifying connections among policy, planning and evaluation at the international level, in this paper I hope to add to, and possibly advance, discussion about the concepts and practices currently dominant at the international level regarding adult education for national development. One of my intentions is to underline the significance of international activities with respect to adult education and their meaning for adult education policy development, program planning and evaluative research at national levels. I hope that some of the critique in this paper will fortify the convictions of those who question some of the present developments in adult education and seek to widen discussion about national directions with regard to adult educational policy, program planning and evaluative practices.

DEVELOPMENT BY POLICY

In the preceding introduction, I suggest that three international strategies aimed at developing adult education deserve attention. The first and foremost is the advancement of policies for adult education.

Numerous declarations and documents at the international level recommend the development of national policies to enhance education for adults. The 1960, Second International Conference of Adult Education (Montreal) concluded its sessions with a Declaration on Adult Education calling on all governments to "...treat adult education as a necessary part of the educational provision of every country (3).

Since the Montreal Conference there has been another: The Third International Conference of Adult Education (Tokyo, 1972) and a Fourth in the offing, planned for 1984. Unesco has published voluminously on adult education, advocating policy development. In 1976, the General Conference of Unesco approved at its 19th Session held in Nairobi, Kenya, an international Recommendation for the Development of Adult Education (4), to which I will return shortly.

Other international organizations have been equally active fostering similar strategies in favor of national planning and budgeting for adult education. The Education Committee of the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has advocated the development of Recurrent Education systems. In 1975, the Committee issued a document titled: Framework for Comprehensive Policies for Adult Education (5). This document argues that: "In order to ensure an equitable distribution of nontraditional learning opportunities, a rational and egalitarian development plan, centrally conceived but not necessarily centrally controlled, would seem to be called for" (6).

The connection between policies and system is inevitable. As one specialist in the foundations of education puts it: "Educational policy is always policy for the educational system" (7).

Educational policy is always policy for the educational system. It is important to state this proposition as a starting point, in part to undermine the rhetoric that generally accompanies calls for "system" with assurances of the adult's freedom to avoid, engage in or withdraw from educational experiences as desired. Already, however, the imposition of education on certain adults, such as professionals, is an accepted social norm in some countries. Mandatory continuing adult education becomes a cause for some in a field in which the key word to date has been "voluntary". Along with the recognition that adults can learn, and the assumption that adults want to learn, the notion that adults should learn "for their own good" is entering contemporary social philosophy.

Whatever the ultimate nature of adult education will be, whether its penchant be positivistic, humanistic or some other perspective on development, the most likely truth is that it will become part of a bigger, if not better, education system. The point here is not to take sides as to whether or not major policies should be developed by nations, nor whether or not adult education activities should be comprehensively systematized by way of these policies, but rather that the ultimate outcome of policy is system. The strategy of international organizations in this regard deserves full attention and further debate.

DEVELOPMENT BY PLANNING

The second major strategy which intergovernmental agencies employ for the development of adult education is planning. Educational planning experienced "astonishing rapid development" (8) following WW-II and during the 1950s and 1960s and continues to expand among governments seeking to approach the problem of national growth and rational, but not necessarily realizable, plans.

Educational planning is generally considered as a continuous government responsibility. Planning, according to Norwegian Director Eide of the Secretariate for the Planning of Education and Research in the Ministry of Education in Oslo, aims at:

- a) rapid adaption of government policies to changing conditions,
- b) greater coherence in the formulation of government policies, and,

- c) increased use of research as an aid in developing rational government policies (9).

Eide hypothesizes that the above three aims are related to trends in modern societies, and these trends emphasize the need for a more rapid adaption of government policies to changing conditions, the demand for greater coherence in the formulation of government policies, and increased use of applied research. But the trends of one country or even a set of countries are not necessarily those of all countries. In the United States, for example, emphasis on educational planning is increasing. Some of the fifty states separately and through mutual projects for educational development--such as the Lifelong Learning Project of the Education Commission of the States (ECS), are actively working to develop policy, planning and evaluation for adult education.

Given this symbiosis, the scope and goals of educational planning as related to policy take on an even closer significance. Closer since the process of educational planning is a preparing of a set of decisions for future action, and these decisions are an outgrowth and reflection of policy as well as an interpretation and determinant of policy. In short, the separation of planning from policy through specialized treatments in the literature is useful for purposes of understanding the different processes of planning and policy formulation (and change), but ignores the necessary interdependence between them. Educational plans like bacteria that live in the gut of herbivorous mammals, aid in the digesting of matter bitten off by policy. At the same time, planning gives direction to policy's appetite through "feedback", pardon the pun.

The scope of educational planning is fixed by the framework within which it is defined. For example, educational planning may be treated as an adjunct or subhead of general economic planning. Or, it may be considered as a function of the aims and operations of education, in which case economic elements are only one aspect of a function which is manifold and complex.

DEVELOPMENT BY EVALUATION

The third major strategy by which international agencies seek to develop adult education is through evaluation, to ascertain a program's worth, or plan for its improvement and possible expansion.

Evaluation, like planning, is a process as well as a tool; it is a process unlike those of policymaking and planning although its functions are symbiotic with both planning and policy. Evaluation serves for policy formulation or for planning--whether in national educational planning or specific educational program plans. Its process generally involves a judgment based on a study of any one, or any combinations, of the following: a) comparison of performance against some standard, b) effectiveness by way of impact, and c) efficiency through cost analysis and comparison with other programs. As its process is manifold, its value as a tool is fixed by the framework within which it is cast.

Intergovernmental agencies, (as well as those of national governments), are concerned about accountability of adult education programs, specifically their economic benefits. It isn't program activities, participation figures or modern practices that are at issue per se, but economic benefits through earnings or savings. Accordingly, much emphasis in evaluations is placed on the program's economic impact, and also on its cost.

By way of illustrating intergovernmental ideas about the purpose, role and practice of adult education program evaluations, I choose an outstanding and one of the largest international adult education programs to date, one in which cross-cultural evaluation was undertaken over ten years (although left unanalyzed on a continuing basis) in eleven participating countries: The Experimental World Literacy Program.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In this paper, I review and critique three major strategies by international agencies for the development of adult education worldwide. Underscored are what I see as the narrow

approach to education and the short-sighted, and perhaps even misguided, concern with economic correlations. While understandable, this approach and concern skew the full meaning and significance of education. In a sense, they doom adult education to failure since, as some critics claim there may be "no correlation between education and economic development, between production and jobs, between planning and training" (10).

Thus, the predominance of economic over other concerns of education--such as equity, participant progress, achievement, the development of intellectual autonomy, critical consciousness, etc.--may be wrongheaded. Notwithstanding, there is today a strong focus politically on economics and programmatically on efficiency, and a trend in that direction appears likely for the coming decade (11), unless other determinations are forthcoming. Perhaps this trend is inevitable, especially for those countries without a tradition of individualism, pluralism and citizen participation in political and socio-economic process. But for those nations with such traditions, it appears to me that the focus is short-sighted both with respect to the multiplicity of education's national development functions and to education's final purposes of which program management is only one though significant concern.

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COMMUNICATION CHANNELS AND SOURCES OF AGRICULTURAL INFORMATION
UTILIZED BY FARMERS IN THE FARMING SYSTEMS PROTOTYPE
AREAS OF SILOE, NYAKOSOBA, AND MOLUMONG IN LESOTHO

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Abstract

A Baseline Survey of the Lesotho Farming Systems Research (FSR) prototype areas was carried out in 1981. The basic extension purpose of the study was to identify better methods of providing agricultural technical information to farmers. The opinions of 471 farmers were surveyed to determine: 1) What communications channels farmers in the three prototype areas used to learn about agricultural information, and 2) what channels or sources of agricultural information were preferred by farmers. Primary sources of agricultural information used were: radio, extension agents, and blood relatives. The preferred sources of agricultural information were: Extension agents, pitsos, and radio.

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

The Baseline Survey of the Lesotho Farming Systems Research (FSR) prototype areas was a collaborative effort of the Lesotho Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) Research Division and Washington State University's Farming Systems Research Project. The project, implemented in 1979, is principally designed "to create more productive agricultural enterprise mixes which are acceptable to farmers, sensitive to farmers' management abilities, appropriate to the resources available, and protective of the land use.

The project blends the need for a practical research base with the needs to extend these technological findings to the people who need them most--the farmers. The project's thrust is adaptive on-the-farm demonstrations to stimulate farmer interest and adoption.

Establishment of a research and information base which is sensitive to existing farming conditions, practices, and attitudes demands a deep understanding of the current farming situation. There was some data available in Lesotho to contribute to this need, although very little of it described farming systems in the ecological areas to which FSR is assigned. The MOA Research Division's FSR team decided to supplement what was already known about prototype area farming systems, as well as their own background experiences by conducting a sample survey of the areas concerned. The survey was conducted from January to April of 1981.

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Prototype Areas

Three FSR prototype areas were designated by the government of Lesotho. These areas represented the three ecological regions of Lesotho in which applied farming systems research is taking place. The areas were: 1) The Mountain Area--Molumong. Situated in the Mokhotlong District and covers about 18,000 acres. It includes a total of 26 villages and 655 households; 2) The Foothill Area--Nyakosoba. It is situated in the Maseru District and encompasses about 14,800 acres. Included are 41 villages and 1,044 households; and 3) The Lowland Area--Siloe. Situated in the Mhales Hoek District and includes about 23,500 acres. There are 40 villages and 1,231 households.

Purpose

The extension and communication purpose of the Baseline Study was to identify better methods of providing agricultural technical information to farmers. Farmers were surveyed to determine: 1) what communications channels farmers in the three prototype areas used to learn about agricultural information, and 2) what channels or sources of agricultural information were preferred by farmers.

Methods

The FSR Baseline Survey was conducted using the personal interview technique and a structured Lesotho language questionnaire. Interviews were conducted with 14% to 18% sample of household heads or managers in each prototype area. Data collection was accomplished by establishing a research division "trainer team" who in turn trained a different team of village interviewers in each of the three prototype areas. Members of the trainer team also assumed responsibility for interviewer training, questionnaire development, data collection and preparation for an analysis.

Training of Trainers

A core of research division staff participated in seven days of orientation on how to implement the survey and how to train village interviewers for data collection. The course was organized so that trainers would experience the concepts they would eventually teach in the field. A variety of training techniques were used in order to expose participants to methods they could apply to interviewer training. The trainer team eventually developed and carried out a comparable course for village interviewers.

The Sample

Part of the sample was drawn during the "training of the trainers" course. This activity was incorporated into the training program in order that trainers would better understand how the sample was selected. Previous to the training course, the research division rural sociology staff visited the three prototype areas and listed every village, chief, and household. In each prototype area every household was assigned a number. There were a total of 2,900 households in the three prototype areas. An arbitrary decision was made to assure that the final sample be no less than 15% of the total.

Analysis of the Data

Once the data was available to the Research Division in computer printout form, members of the staff analyzed the data pertinent to the Extension and Communications part of the study. Most of the data was analyzed by prototype area. It was felt that with the many differences observed concerning responses of the household heads of the three areas that an examination of the data in this form was the most useful way to structure the study of the analysis. Data was presented in percentage form.

RESULTS

Identify the Local Extension Agent

Only 24.2% of all household heads in the sample could identify the local agent by name. A total of 8.6% indicated they knew the person but not by name. There were sharp contrasts between prototype areas. A total of 56.5% of the household heads in the Molumong area identified the local agent by name as contrasted with the Nyakosoba area where only 2.6% of those interviewed could identify the agent.

Primary Source of Agricultural Information

Approximately 51% of the sample could identify someone who was a source of agricultural information and 18.4% could identify a second source. Sixty-eight percent of the household heads in Molumong identified someone as a source of agricultural information. The person most often named was the Extension agent. A total of 34% of those in Nyakosoba identified a person as a source of agricultural information. Blood relatives (34%) were the source most frequently mentioned. In Siloe, respondents reported blood relatives (38%) and Extension agents (35%) as the most frequently consulted persons.

Radios in Homes

A total of 43.3% of the household heads interviewed reported having a radio in their home. Radios in homes by area were: Siloe (52.6%), Nyakosoba (42.5%), and Molumong (30.4%). Radios in working condition by area were: Siloe (89%), Nyakosoba (91.2%), and Molumong (94.3%).

Sources of Agricultural Information

Overall, 57% of the heads of households in the sample areas had heard useful agricultural information from a source during the past year. On the other hand, 43% indicated they had not heard any useful agricultural information from any source during the year. A total of 68.6% of the respondents in the Siloe area reported hearing useful information during the past year. This contrasted with only approximately 50% of the respondents in the Nyakosoba and Molumong areas reporting hearing useful information from any source during the year.

Sources of Useful Agricultural Information

Again, it should be pointed out that only 57% of the respondents from the entire sample indicated hearing any useful information from any source during the past year. In the Molumong area, respondents reported the following: pitsos (47%), radio (47%), and Extension workers (35%) as the specific sources of useful agricultural information heard during the year. Pitsos are village meetings.

Respondents in Nyakosoba indicated that 70% of them learned useful agricultural information over the radio. Pitsos (38%), other individuals (28%), and clinics (17%) were the other sources identified. Extension workers were only mentioned by 3% of the sample in Nyakosoba.

Pitsos (51%) were the most frequent source mentioned by the household heads in Siloe as a source of useful agricultural information for the past year. Other useful sources mentioned were clinics (15%), extension workers (19%), and other individuals (12%).

Preferred Source of Receiving Agricultural Information

Approximately 59% of the Molumong sample indicated that extension workers were their most preferred source of receiving agricultural information. Other sources were: pitsos (11%), radio (8%), pamphlets (8%), and demonstrations (7%).

Household heads in Nyakosoba also preferred receiving agricultural information from extension agents (64%). This was of interest since only 3% of the respondents had reported knowing the extension worker or had had contact with an extension worker during the year. Other sources mentioned were: radio (10%), FTC course (7%), and pitsos (10%).

Almost 70% of the respondents in Siloe indicated extension worker as their sources of receiving agricultural information. Other sources mentioned were: radio (9%), pitsos (9%), and pamphlets (8%).

IMPLICATIONS

Two basic concerns were addressed in this study. These were: 1) what communications channels and sources do household heads in the three prototype areas use to learn about agricultural information? and 2) what are the preferred channels and sources of agricultural information?

The study showed that approximately 70% of the respondents in the sample could not identify their extension agent. A majority of those who could identify their agent indicated their most recent contact had been during the past one to three months. There was a significant contrast between respondents in the Molumong and Nyakosoba areas in terms of knowing their local agent. A total of 56.5% of the Molumong respondents could identify their extension agent in contrast to 2.6% of the respondents in Nyakosoba.

The development and implementation of a successful farming systems program must involve close contact with researchers, extension agents, and farmers. The evidence from this study indicates a very low level of agent contact in Nyakosoba. Efforts must be made to expand FSR personnel contact in the prototype areas in order to accelerate agricultural development.

Primary sources of agricultural information were studied. Only 51% of the total sample could identify someone who was a source of information. The extension agent was mentioned most frequently in Molumong and blood relatives in Nyakosoba and Siloe. These findings suggest that ways of improving the flow of agricultural information via blood relatives may be useful.

The radio as a channel and source of agricultural information was the subject of this study. Regular agricultural news is broadcast in Lesotho to farmers in the prototype areas. Only 43% of household heads interviewed reported having radios. According to the respondents about 90% of their radios were in working order.

The radio has been used as an effective channel of agricultural information in Columbia and in the Masagana 99 program in the Philippines. The GOL might consider expanding the number of radios in the prototype areas. There is also literacy education via radio taking place over Radio Lesotho in cooperation with the Lesotho Distant Teaching Centre. Agricultural news programs might be utilized as a vehicle in literacy education.

A number of questions concerned Radio Lesotho, the principal radio station broadcasting news in the three areas. Radio reception was reported generally as clear or variable. About 47% of the respondents indicated they listened to Radio Lesotho. These respondents listened to Radio Lesotho more frequently in their homes and in the homes of neighbors.

Research from the Basic Agricultural Project in Guatemala and Masagana 99 in the Philippines indicates that farmers can learn about new agricultural practices via radio alone. In the Guatemala study by using radio alone, farmers in the experimental areas showed a 31% increase in making recommended changes than in the control areas. This approach is enhanced by the use of key contact farmers trained by extension agents. The contact farmers meet with groups of farmers in their communities and listened to agricultural recommendations broadcast by radio. Farming Systems recommendations could be broadcast over Radio Lesotho to farmers in the prototype areas. The use of contact farmers with groups of farmers using radio might be explored as an educational approach to further FSR programs.

Radio Lesotho listeners preferred to listen to news, music, nutrition and agricultural news programs. Focusing the message in a more personal and meaningful manner can attract more listeners. Adapting stories and plays to agricultural information is a means to convey agricultural information in an interesting manner to farmers. This was done in the Ivory Coast with great success. This offers some possibilities for Radio Lesotho.

Although response rates varied between the three areas, pitsos, radio and extension agents were most frequently mentioned as sources of information. The implications are that continuing educational efforts with radio and pitsos should be utilized and improved. These sources may be the most effective in the awareness of interest stage in the acceptance and adoption of FSR technology and recommendations. This should be reinforced by individual and group contacts with an extension agent.

Extension workers were by far the most preferred source of receiving agricultural information (59%). This was even true in the Nyakosoba area where only 3% of the respondents knew their local agent by name. The implications are that recruitment, training, placement and support of extension agents in the prototype areas coupled with more effective use of radio, pitsos, demonstrations and clinics should enhance the diffusion of FSR technology and recommendations.

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THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION TEACHER IN KUWAIT

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe Adult Basic Education teachers in seven centers in Kuwait City. Case study and survey methods were used to gather data concerning the cultural background of teachers, the planned curriculum, the status of teachers and their quality of life. Preliminary results suggest the cultural background of non-Kuwaiti teachers has little effect on their instructing or communicating with Kuwaiti students; there is almost no variety in classroom instruction and materials--the use of a text per course and chalk talk are dominant. While generally positive about their status and the quality of their life, non-Kuwaiti teachers are sensitive about salary differentials which provide Kuwaiti teachers with more income for the same services.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Adult Basic Education (ABE) in Kuwait had its beginning in 1958, when adult educators from Palestine and Egypt were first invited to Kuwait. At that time, the Ministry of Social Affairs was assigned the task of establishing evening classes for adults.

Adult learners were provided with the same educational materials as those used by primary school children, and the programs were housed in facilities annexed to the primary schools. Three hundred and fifty adult learners participated in the ABE program in the first year. Two ABE centers were opened. A mere three thousand dollars were committed to the program.

The second stage of ABE development lasted from 1960 to 1963. During this period, the Ministry of Education assumed responsibility for expanding opportunities for evening class students and for encouraging participation. The Ministry developed a political campaign intended to get illiterates to willfully and voluntarily participate in ABE classes. Establishing compulsory primary education, the Ministry set in place a formal system for upgrading the competencies of citizens. The Ministry appealed to the religious beliefs of citizens, by equating a better education with desirable religious behavior. By 1964, \$100,000 had been committed to educating adults and 12,323 males and 1,325 females were enrolled in evening classes.

The third stage of ABE development began in 1964 with further expansion of programs for adults. As of 1980, \$750,000 was being spent on programs for adult learners. By 1982, male enrollment had dropped to 6,998 while female enrollment had increased to 5,048. (*Journal of Literacy and Adult Education*, 1980) Current government emphasis on educating adults was highlighted in 1981 when the Amir (President) issued a law which made adult education compulsory. The law stressed: (1) each Kuwaiti should participate in the literacy movement; (2) literacy would be compulsory for all Kuwaiti ages 14 to 44; (3) persons finishing the ABE program should get either a promotion or a raise; (4) the government has a right to fire those citizens who do not participate in the literacy movement or who do not attend classes regularly; and (5) it is illegal to hire or to promote

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illiterate persons (Kuwait Today, 1981).

THE ADULT BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM

Organization Of The ABE Program

Within the Ministry of Education the Department of Literacy is responsible for educational programs for adults. An independent department, its administrator may authorize any decision affecting the education of adults. Supervisors of ABE programs meet on a weekly basis with teachers and discuss progress toward goals within the classrooms and the schools. A monthly meeting is held with the administrator of the department in order to monitor and evaluate administration, teaching, and adult student participation in the program.

The ABE program consists of three levels. The first level is equivalent to first thru fourth grades in an elementary school. Classes at this level meet three periods a day. The second level--called the intermediate level--is equivalent to a "junior high" and holds classes four periods a day. The third level is equivalent to a "high school" and also holds classes for four periods. All classes meet five nights a week, Saturday through Wednesday. Classes begin at 5 p.m. The curriculum is comprised of three subject areas: arithmetic, Arabic language (reading and writing) and Islamic religion. At each level these subjects are taught in greater depth. No additional courses are offered.

Objectives Of The ABE Program

Program objectives include the following:

- (1) providing learners with the skills of reading, writing and numeracy;
 - (2) getting learners accustomed to the habits of conscious reading, good listening and sound expression of thought;
 - (3) developing and consolidating their ability to think independently;
 - (4) raising their awareness toward the importance of science; and,
 - (5) promoting their self-confidence and ability to learn and progress.
- (Al-Rawi, 1980)

Teaching In The ABE Program

Each year in June the Ministry of Education forms a committee, headed by the Under-secretary for Social Work and Teaching, to hire teachers for the next academic year. This committee tours the Arab world, especially Egypt and Syria. The committee runs advertisements in newspapers in many countries in an attempt to lure persons to teach in Kuwait. The requirements for non-Kuwaiti teacher include: (1) the Bachelor of Science or Bachelor of Arts degree, (2) teaching background, (3) willingness to reside in Kuwait and (4) agreement with the beliefs of Kuwaiti society. Table I below gives a breakdown on teachers of adults.

Teachers are assigned to teach at the elementary or secondary school level based on prior teaching experience. Thereafter, they are invited to teach adults supplemental to their primary daytime assignments. Most of these teachers have no experience in teaching adults. Often, they take additional work to make more money.

	TABLE I				
	Teachers Of Adults By Nationality And Sex				
	Palestinian	Egyptian	Syrian	Jordanian	Kuwaiti
Male	55	24	9	77	35
Female	28	112	6	40	24

The base salary for beginning Kuwaiti teachers is \$900 per month plus \$150 per month for the spouse and \$60 per month for each child. The base salary for beginning non-Kuwaiti teachers is \$700 per month, with similar but lesser family benefits. At each service level of teaching Kuwaiti teachers receive a larger income than non-Kuwaiti teachers.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study, we sought data for describing the following four research questions:

- (1) How does the cultural background of the non-Kuwaiti teacher affect what occurs in the ABE classroom?
- (2) How do ABE teachers plan the ABE classroom instruction and curriculum?
- (3) How does the status of the ABE teacher contribute to behavior in the ABE classroom?
- (4) How does the ABE teacher's quality of life influence classroom behavior?

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

The Culture Of The ABE Teacher

Historically, the majority of teachers in Kuwait have been from other countries. We theorized that while these non-Kuwaiti teachers would speak the same language as Kuwaiti adult learners, they would communicate with different accents, habits, customs in mind. We wondered how cultural differences might get played out in the classroom.

The Classroom As A Planned Environment

ABE teachers are assigned goals and objectives by the Ministry of Education and are expected to carry them out. Likewise, they have been instructed to use Ministry-selected topics and textbooks. For the most part, the planning occurs at the top and filters down to the teachers through their supervisors.

We theorized that perhaps greater variety among ABE teachers occurs than has been assumed in the past. While the organizational planning structure is clear on paper, we theorized that ABE teachers may have developed supplementary materials for adults after years of teaching them. From an instructional view, we theorized that ABE teachers may have struck on the idea of individualization, if not at least in some rather primitive form. In sum, we theorized that ABE teachers may have become more autonomous.

The Role Of The ABE Teacher In Kuwaiti Society

We theorized that especially for non-Kuwaiti ABE teachers, who by virtue of being immigrant education laborers receive less pay and fewer benefits, teaching night classes might be viewed strictly as a money-making venture. Accordingly, we speculated that such a view might mean that teachers showed little concern for their students, did little planning, rarely involved students in classroom discussion and seldom--even unsystematically evaluated student performance.

Quality Of Personal Life

Finally, we theorized that the ABE teachers' life outside the school might contribute to events in the classroom. In several ways, the attitude of non-Kuwaiti teachers may be affected by out-of-school circumstances. In a society with such a high standard of living, the income of teachers keeps them in a "middle class" buying power capacity, far below the majority of workers in Kuwait. Non-Kuwaiti teachers cannot participate in the political process, neither in governmental elections nor in educational decision-making. Agree or not, these teachers must accept the dictates of someone else in order to remain in good

stead with authorities.

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Research Methods

A survey and case study methodology were selected for the study for several reasons. First, while surveys enabled us to gather data from a larger number of teachers and students, there were innate problems with the two 25-item instruments--one for teachers and one for students. To begin with both ABE teachers and students have had few, if any experiences in filling out survey forms of this type; hence, fear and suspicion might have intervened to bias responses. Certainly, we discovered that ABE teachers were somewhat threatened by the survey. They thought the survey was a Ministry of Education evaluation whose results might be used to demote and fire some of them. Second, we had limited time set aside for field testing the instrument with ABE students. Accordingly, we later found that language in two items rendered them useless. Language presented a greater problem from a research perspective. Both instruments had to be translated into Arabic, increasing chances for distortion of meaning. Validation of data was left much more difficult to determine and more open to suspicion.

The case study method was used as well in hopes of overcoming some of the research difficulties described above. An interview schedule was developed for administering to a selected group of students and teachers. A classroom observation form was designed for monitoring teachers' performance. Through his role as a participant observer--a teacher at one of the centers, one of the researchers kept detailed notes on interactions and events providing data otherwise not available through survey methodology. Each instrument was designed around the four research questions: what happens in the ABE classroom as a result of the teachers' cultural background, way in which they plan and carry out the curriculum and instruction, status and quality of life as they impinge on what happens in the classroom.

Research Procedures

There are seven ABE schools in Kuwait City. Forty-one teachers and 265 students were located for the study. The survey instrument, containing identical questions for 24 of the 25 items, was administered to all of the teachers. All of the teacher surveys were returned. Surveys were returned by 155 of the students.

In one of the centers one of the researchers had teacher status. While participating in the center he interviewed all of the ABE teachers. He also observed each classroom on three occasions and used the designed observation form. He kept a daily diary in order to note specific conversations and to describe what he interpreted as particularly important daily events.

Analysis Of Data

In this paper, we were able to report percentages of responses to the survey instrument for the 41 teachers and 76 students. More sophisticated analyses, examining variances among teachers and between teachers and students in relation to research questions and narrative emerging from observations, will be forthcoming.

REPORT OF DATA

In the following table we have summarized data from teacher and student surveys. Only responses to items we have interpreted as providing insight to the research questions have been included. We have placed both teachers and students responses together in the table to allow for rough comparisons between the two groups.

TABLE II
Comparison Of Teacher And Student Survey Responses

Item	Teacher Responses (N = 41)					Student Responses (N = 76)				
	5*	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Culture affects teaching	34.1**	48.7	9.7	7.3	---	36.8	43.4	13.1	3.9	1.6
Classroom is organized	82.9	14.6	---	2.4	---	59.2	34.2	1.3	2.6	2.6
Variety of material used	31.7	56.0	---	---	---	46.0	40.7	7.8	2.6	2.6
Practical skills learned	26.8	73.1	---	---	---	39.4	50.0	5.2	---	3.9
Money-making skills	19.5	51.2	26.8	2.4	---	17.1	35.5	19.7	9.2	17.1
Teachers successful	24.3	65.8	7.3	2.4	---	47.3	38.1	5.2	2.6	1.3
Teachers enjoy teaching	19.5	65.8	14.6	---	---	42.1	42.1	6.5	5.2	2.6

*5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = no comment, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree
 ** responses reported in percentages

SELECTED FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

The cultural background of ABE teachers studied does not appear to present difficulty either in communicating with or instructing adult Kuwaiti learners. While both teachers and students generally agreed that culture does affect the way a teacher teaches, we found that such a conclusion is likely true for beginning teachers from outside Kuwait. Yet, the vast majority of ABE teachers have been in the classroom for 12 years or more. As a result, they have adjusted to working with Kuwaiti students. They have shed their native accents, do not display habits or customs not readily accepted by Kuwaitis. Nonetheless, Kuwaiti teachers and students uniformly agreed that they were more comfortable working with Kuwaitis, urging that more Kuwaiti teachers be trained as opposed to going outside the country to hire.

We found that little autonomy was available for ABE teachers. Basic arithmetic, language, and religion texts continue to be assigned by the Ministry and required use for teachers. There was some disagreement between students and teachers as to the level of classroom organization. Contributing factors to disorganization included the energy level of teachers how teach all day and view the teaching of adults as less important than teaching children and adults. The fact they are paid less per hour for instructing adults contributes to that feeling. To our surprise, we found that the average age of ABE students is 25. Some classes had 12-year-olds due to repeated failure in the regular school. In some classrooms, students would get up and leave in the middle of a session due to employment schedules. In many classes, only half the students appeared on a given night. More attention should be devoted to individualizing programs, both in terms of curricular offerings but also scheduling class hours. By and large, adults continue to be taught in the same way as children and youth.

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LEARNING THEORY AND DELIVERY SYSTEMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING METHODOLOGY IN THE 1980S

Richard E. Lincoln¹

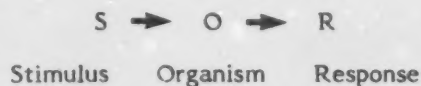
Abstract

Characteristics of teaching methodology are determined, in part, by assumptions about learning that are drawn from psychology (learning theory). If psychologists change these assumptions, corresponding changes in the teaching/learning process--behavioral analysis, teaching strategies, delivery systems, and testing--may follow.

The educational scene of the 1980s will be characterized by significant shifts in methods of instruction. This revolution in teaching methodology will be the direct result of two concurrent forces: an evolving change in the dominant learning theory and radical changes in the learning environment brought about by technological advances in the means of delivering education.

BEHAVIORAL LEARNING THEORY

In the 1960s systematic instructional development took place that was based on learning theory and was deeply rooted in and nourished by the behaviorist tradition. To understand many of the advances that occurred in the process of instruction in the 1960s and 1970s, one need only to review the basic tenets of behavioral theory. The schema below may prove useful:



Basically, learning was viewed as an outcome of a process in which a stimulus (instruction) impinges on an organism (the student), who produces a response (behavior--desirable or undesirable). A crucial point to be made here is that the organism in question--that is, the student--is perceived as essentially a passive recipient of the stimulus or material to be learned. A significant practical advantage to viewing the student in such a manner is that it eliminates individual student differences, a large source of variance, and permits the instructional developer to concentrate on manipulating the instructional stimulus in order to produce the desired observable behavior.

Behavioral theory assumes that any learning event, no matter how complex, may be described by systematically relating sets of stimuli to responses. References to events occurring within the learning organism are avoided.

Undoubtedly one of the most far-reaching influences of the 1960s-70s approach to instructional development was the introduction and widespread use of instructional objectives. Objectives are explicit descriptions of the intended outcomes of instruction. Since behaviorists believe responses to be the outcomes of instruction, objectives should describe those responses and they should be behavioral. An example integrating many of the points raised above might prove useful. The following instructional objective is typical of a behavioristically oriented teaching unit:

Given a prose passage with 10 grammatical or syntactical errors, the student will be able to detect and correct at least 8.

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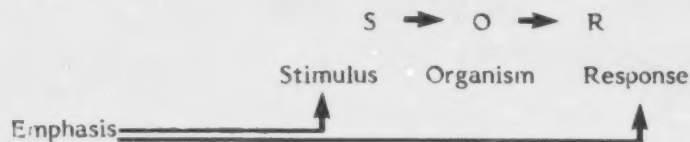
Implications for Teaching

According to the behaviorist it is the response that is learned. Consequently, instructional strategies have featured drawing out the correct response and reinforcing it through feedback. This approach yielded a prescriptive strategy for designing instruction: prepare instructional objectives, divide the material to be learned into small units, require the students to respond actively, sequence the instruction from simple to complex so that student errors are minimized, and so on. Labeled the systems approach, this kind of instruction could be designed to produce a substantial degree of precision and control in the production of self-study and group learning activities. Perhaps the classic example of teaching materials inspired by behavioral theory is programmed instruction, which occasionally produced spectacular results in public education and in military and industrial settings.

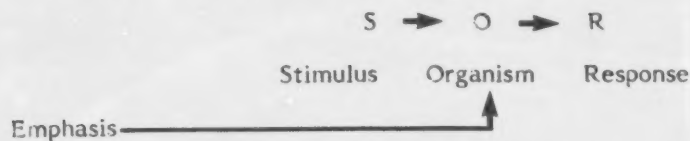
COGNITIVE LEARNING THEORY

In the late 1970s instructional science began to shift its theoretical orientation to one based on information-processing models of knowledge acquisition. The basic difference between the behavioral approach and the information-processing approach deals with how a learning event is to be described and what is to be emphasized.

Recall that behavioral theory was depicted by this diagram:



An information-processing approach, in contrast, may be shown as follows:



That is, the information-processing view places primary emphasis on events that are internal to the learning organism. Drawing heavily on the process by which computers process information, psychologists have developed models of human cognition. Such models typically feature two sorts of memory: short-term and long-term. Short-term memory is limited to relatively small bits of information that are retained (that is, active) for only a brief time. Long-term storage, on the other hand, includes information that is not active in the working memory but can, after some searching, be accessed, retrieved, and activated.

Information-processing theory says that the senses of the learner receive the initial stimulation, which is transformed into neural impulses. The stimulation then goes through additional transformations, each one important for learning. The initial stimulation affects what are termed sensory registers; this is a very brief kind of registration. Then a subsequent transformation gets recorded in the short-term working memory, which has a limited capacity as to the amount of information it can hold (approximately four to seven units) and for how long (20 to 30 seconds). In the final transformation the information is recorded and stored in the long-term memory.

One interesting application of this model from an instructional standpoint is the mechanism that accounts for comprehension. When information enters the working memory, a context that "makes sense" of the information is retrieved from long-term storage. If a good "fit" between the new information and the context occurs in the working memory, then comprehension results. For example, the first time a student taking a course in introductory statistics hears the term t-test, there is little if any comprehension. In contrast, a trained statistician who encounters the same term has available in long-term memory storage an elaborated context that includes concepts such as simple randomized design, error term, repeated measurements, and so on. Information-processing theory holds that this context is brought to bear upon the term t-test so quickly and effortlessly that the individual is unaware of it.

The concept of drill and practice has particular significance within the cognitive theory. The cognitive theorist believes that for problem solving to occur, the learner must use the working memory, which has a limited capacity. In order to carry out the necessary processing, certain discipline-related procedures (mathematical skills for example) must not simply be mastered but become automatic. The process of achieving the smooth, automatic improvement in cognitive performance that results from drill and practice has been termed tuning (Rumelhart and Norman, 1979).

Another assumption of the information-processing theory is that for comprehension to occur, appropriate material must be present in long-term storage. One of the most significant assumptions of information-processing theory is that what gets stored in long-term memory is not individual words but rather sentence-like propositions having subjects and predicates. Comprehension is an active process that involves a continual matching of the incoming data against an assumed context. From an instructional standpoint it is important to add that this matching or testing does not occur on the occasion of each word in a sentence. Rather, an entire context is retrieved in order to comprehend what may be highly complex informational inputs. Thus how information is organized in long-term memory is crucial.

The intellectual contents of long-term memory--referred to as cognitive structures--consist of intellectual skills, images, algorithms, networks of propositions, episodes, and so on. To an information-processing theorist, learning is a function of the interaction between the organization of the subject matter to be learned and the characteristics of the student's cognitive structures. In fact, learning can be thought of as the process of acquiring cognitive structures like those present in the various content disciplines--"If you want to be a chemist, you must learn to think like a chemist."

Implications for Teaching

Since the student is thus viewed as an active processor of the material to be learned, principles of the information-processing theory lead the instructional developer to pay particular attention to two variables: student motivation and subject matter organization or structure.

The shift from seeing the student as a passive processor of information to seeing the student as an active one points up the significant responsibilities that students have for the success of their own learning. Before active processing can occur, there must be present a certain motivational state, a kind of tension, which may be at the very least a readiness to attend to the relevant features of an instructional problem. Wildman and Burton (1981) have observed that in most younger children this motivation seems to be almost built in, something like a natural drive. However, in adults, particularly those with poor educational experiences, this motivation may be lacking. Assuming some responsibility for one's own learning brings with it a willingness to generate meaningful relationships within a content discipline, work under conditions involving conceptual confusion, evaluate one's performance, and take risks involving one's competency as a learner.

The instructional designer can assist the learner in these tasks by dealing with the second variable--subject matter organization or structure. This is done in two ways. First, the cognitive structures of the various content disciplines (principles, generalizations, rules, strategies, etc.) must be explicitly identified, then taught and tested. Second, the instruction (input) must be organized in ways that enhance the processing of information. Below is a brief sample of theory-based strategies for facilitating learning.

- Before students start to read textual material, provide them with introductory material that will help their subsequent understanding. Summaries, overviews, pretests, and advance organizers are examples of such preinstructional strategies.
- Write headings and subheadings in the form of questions rather than statements. Readers remember more from textual material when the headings and subheadings are questions because questions encourage students to examine what they are reading and to look for related facts and ideas. Questions influence the depth of processing. Specific questions help students to remember specific cases. Higher-order questions lead to the recall of generalizations that include specific cases.
- When key terms, new vocabulary, and phrases are first introduced to the student in a text, print them in italics or bold type.

- Whenever possible, express complex procedures (for example, legal documents or government regulations) in the form of an algorithm or a decision tree. Algorithms are expected to have a significant impact on the educational scene of the 1980s.
- When appropriate, use graphs. The simplest kinds of graphs (and the easiest to comprehend) are line graphs and bar charts.

Although these are only a few of the literally hundreds of instructional design features compatible with information-processing theory, they communicate at least the flavor of this theory-based approach to instruction.

DELIVERY SYSTEMS FOR THE 1980S

Some of the implications of a shifting emphasis within the field of learning theory have been briefly discussed, but what lies ahead for education in view of rapidly emerging innovations in technology? One thing appears to be certain--the technologies of today and tomorrow (such as teleconferencing, satellite communications, personal computers, computer-assisted teaching and testing) will bring about fundamental changes in the educational environment. It is far beyond the scope of this paper to go into detail about the impact of these emerging technologies; however, some useful generalizations can be provided.

Undoubtedly most instruction today is delivered in a classroom by an instructor whose primary role is to transmit appropriate information by using notes and personal experiences as resources. Changes in the lecture method will likely be in the form of more narrowly restricting lectures to certain appropriate situations: for responding to specific, unanticipated concerns of students, for personal motivation, for "one-shot" delivery of information, and for meeting spontaneous or unique instructional objectives. Lecturing is not, of course, limited to a classroom environment; courses broadcast on television are basically one version of the lecture method (in fact, PBS has almost become a traditional delivery system).

If the present trends in delivery systems continue, and undoubtedly they will, we will see an increasing incidence of education going to the learner, rather than the learner going to education; in other words, education will be decentralized. A variety of factors appear to be operating to continue this trend (for example, increasing energy costs and alternative delivery systems that are becoming increasingly cost-effective). One low-cost example of decentralization is audioconferencing, which permits an instructor to lecture simultaneously to groups of students at numerous locations. Such audio networks can be characterized as essentially an extension of the classroom setting. The missing visual aspect can be compensated for by the use of slow-scan video, thus permitting an even closer approximation of the lecture approach.

One delivery system rapidly approaching practicality is narrowcast television, which delivers college-level courses via a satellite to cable and over-the-air stations on a national basis. Students who register for such courses receive workbooks and other adjunct study materials. Basically a "live" lecture, a telecourse permits the student to study independently at home or in the office. One indication of its practicality is the emergence in the fall of 1981 of the American Educational Television Network (AETN), whose programming is specifically designed to appeal to professionals who must obtain relicensure or who desire continuing education.

One of the implicit consequences of decentralized instruction is that students must place greater emphasis on independent study, either in preparation for, or as a follow-up to, the instructional session. One medium that allows increased interaction and aids independent study is the personal computer. Its size permits the learner to prepare in a variety of settings--home, office, or local library, for example. Because of its storage capacity, greater sophistication and flexibility in the completion of homework assignments are possible. The personal computer offers a variety of independent study techniques, such as sophisticated simulations and instructional games to enhance and extend learning. Word processing features permit students to organize and prepare reports, which may be stored for later retrieval or distributed to the instructor or other students. A computer can also serve as a terminal linked to other remote data banks through telephone connections. Thus, the personal computer permits the learner to break out of the narrow confines of traditional independent study and opens up a wide variety of previously inaccessible resources.

The importance of drill and practice in automatizing problem-solving skills was mentioned earlier. The personal computer seems uniquely qualified to turn dull and boring drill-and-practice exercises into interesting, reinforcing activities. Instructional games and competitions can be used in daily classroom activities or in self-study settings with highly significant instructional benefits.

Although audioconferencing, videoconferencing, and personal computers have only been briefly described here, there are other possibilities which, alone or in combination, give a completely new look to the design, development, and delivery of instruction. They all, however, result in several educational benefits: delivering instruction at a time and a place more convenient to the student, individualizing study, increasing interaction, varying study time to meet the needs of the learner, and finally (and most importantly) increasing the quality of the educational experience. If these benefits are in fact to be realized, however, the role of the instructor must undergo equally radical changes. Attractive as the new technologies may be, they also present many challenges to those dedicated to providing quality education. Each medium possesses its own set of features in terms of the acceptable length of the program, time limitations for each session, student response modes, use of graphics and illustrations, and on and on. Consequently the instructor with little or no experience with a new delivery system would be well advised to work closely with an instructional designer, who is prepared to make recommendations as to the best use of the unique instructional features of each system.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Teaching methodology in the 1980s will be affected by two concurrent forces: a shift in the dominant theory of how students acquire knowledge (learning theory) and increasing sophistication of systems for delivering educational information. Of the two, changes brought about by new technology will undoubtedly be the more pervasive. Each delivery system, whether videoconferencing, audioconferencing, personal computers, or some other method, has inherent constraints and advantages that are best dealt with by the cooperative efforts of instructors and instructional designers working together.

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CONTEMPORARY ADULT LEARNING THEORIES: A HISTORICAL AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Harold W. Stubblefield¹

Abstract

Five theories of adult learning that have emerged in the past 35 years are traced through an analysis of five theories: laboratory education, participation training, andragogy, deliberate efforts of adults to learn, and perspective transformation. A central theme pervaded each theory: how adults can be freed from dependency upon others in learning and how they can be helped to effectively manage their learning.

Considerable attention is now being devoted to providing learning opportunities for adults, to identifying educational needs of adults for policy planning by governmental agencies, and to reconceptualizing the educational system to include adult education as an integral part. Much of this activity has focused on what providers can do to make learning opportunities more accessible and more attractive to adult learners. Within this growing attention to adult education, several researchers have centered their work on the nature of the adult as a learner and the process of facilitating the learning competencies of adults. They viewed learning and changing as a central feature of adulthood. Their concern went beyond teaching to learning.

Five of these theories are examined in this paper: the laboratory education method, Indiana University's Participation Training, Malcolm Knowles' andragogical process theory, Allen Tough's theory of learning projects and intentional change, and Jack Mezirow's perspective transformation theory. In particular, the paper treats the origin of each theory, the central assumptions about the nature of the adult as a learner which each theory holds, and the assumptions about how adult learning should be facilitated. Persons who are well read in the adult education literature will notice the absence of many significant developments in the field of adult learning such as participation research and learning style research. But these five were selected because they are attempts to integrate research, theories and practices from different sources into an explanation of how adults learn.

GROUP DYNAMICS AND ADULT LEARNING

In the late 1940s and 1950s two significant theories of adult learning appeared that were rooted in research in group dynamic approaches to learning. The most powerful theory about the adult as a learner and the processes of adult learning came from the laboratory education movement that began in the late 1940s (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne, 1964). Its influence upon general adult education has not always been apparent because many of its innovations have been absorbed without recognition of their origins. The laboratory method of education began in 1946 in a summer workshop in New Britain, Connecticut, to develop local leaders who could promote understanding of, and compliance with, the Fair Employment Practices Act. In this workshop emerged the basic idea upon which the T-Group was formed: when persons get feedback on their behavior they can change. A three week summer session was organized for 1947 at Bethel, Maine, and a movement and an organization was born: the National Training Laboratories.

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Several leaders in the NTL were also leaders in the newly organized (1951) Adult Education Association of the U.S.A. (AEA), and they began to diffuse their research into the general adult education literature through the AEA journals and the 1960 Handbook of Adult Education. Bradford (1958) summarized the laboratory education theory of the adult learner: the adult learner was a set of motivational, perceptual, emotional, and attitudinal systems that he/she mobilized to resist learning and changing unless the climate was safe to do so. Laboratory education innovators looked upon learning as a process of changing. To understand the dynamics of this process, they derived ideas from various disciplines that could shed light on adult learning situations. From the laboratory education movement came a new learning theory called change theory. The central concern of change theory was to identify conditions to bring about behavioral changes in individuals, groups, and institutions.

Within the adult education literature, the clearest explication of the processes of adult learning is Jack Gibb's chapter on "Learning Theory in Adult Education" in the 1960 Handbook of Adult Education. Briefly put, the principles of adult learning state: Begin any learning activity by identifying the problems which the learner is experiencing in his/her life situation, provide appropriate experiences so that the learner can collect data that bears on his/her problem, engage the learner in setting goals and organizing the activities by which the data will be collected and feedback obtained. In essence, the teaching-learning transaction is a human transaction in which the critical issue is to create and maintain a climate so that learning that involves personal meaning can be conducted.

This conception of the teaching-learning transaction as a process of change was rooted in a social philosophy derived from the values of science and democracy (Bradford, Gibb, and Benne, 1974, pp. 8-10). From democratic ethics the innovators drew the belief that organizational and community change should be brought about through collaborative efforts. From scientific ethics they drew the idea of the "morality" of science: all the facts should be faced, objectivity was needed to collect and interpret data, and cooperation among investigators was important. In particular, they wanted "behavioral" facts about human motivation and group interests to be incorporated into decision-making and for decision-makers to be aware of their own biases.

The work of Paul Bergevin and his associates at Indiana University was less comprehensive and less well-known than the work at NTL, but it was, nevertheless, an important episode in the development of adult learning theory. Developed by Bergevin and McKinley in a major action research project conducted in churches in the 1950s, this project resulted in a weeklong institute to train persons in team work discussion skills and program planning skills. The institute was called the Indiana Plan for Adult Religious Education; it was later called Participation Training when it began to be used with non-church groups (Bergevin and McKinley, 1958; Bergevin and McKinley, 1965). This research and earlier works on group methods were elaborated into a general theory of adult education procedures.

The adult learning theory held that adults were motivated to learn when they felt some need (deficiency) or interest: begin with the learner's situation and then identify the resources or content that address that situation. Adults had been conditioned, however, to depend upon authorities to guide their learning; they were reluctant to express their own ideas and to open themselves to changing their ideas. Drawing upon Cantor's Dynamics of Learning (1946), Bergevin and McKinley created a learning process model for change. When adults heard ideas that were contrary to their own, they experienced conflict and became defensive. Only in a climate where they were free to express their own ideas and to understand the ideas of others could they begin to identify with other ideas and incorporate them into their own thinking. In contrast to the laboratory education method, Participation Training focused on feelings only when the feelings interfered with learning. The intent was to assist adults to learn how to learn: how to manage the processes of collaborative group learning of content other than group process content.

The 1970s saw the appearance of three closely related theories of adult learning: Malcolm Knowles' andragogy, Allen Tough's learning projects and intentional change, and Jack Mezirow's perspective transformation.

Andragogy

Malcolm Knowles' concept of andragogy as the art and science of helping adults learn captured the imagination of persons in many areas of adult learning when The Modern Practice of Adult Education appeared in 1970. Knowles' synthesis emphasized more than any previous writer had done the discontinuity between the child as learner and the adult as learner. The logic that underlies andragogical theory goes like this: Adults have certain characteristics that differ from those of children. Since this is so, there are principles and conditions of learning that differ for adults than those traditionally associated with the education of children and youth. These principles and conditions can be translated into a process model for planning and conducting all learning activities for adults. Essentially, Knowles described the adult learner as a person with a self-concept of self-direction, with experiences to be used in the learning activities, with needs for learning arising from developmental tasks, and with a time perspective for immediate application.

The process model includes seven steps: Begin with creating a climate in which the adult does not feel threatened and can diagnosis his/her learning needs. Engage the learner in setting goals, plan the learning experiences, carry out the activities, report the activities, and evaluate the learning outcomes by rediagnosing unmet learning needs. In this process, the teacher, or facilitator, to use Knowles' term, provides support, makes available resources, and guides the learner through the process. The facilitator is rarely a source of content for the learners; instead, they secure the content through their own self-directed inquiry through reading, interviewing, or experimenting with new behavior.

The critical societal condition that shaped Knowles' understanding of the adult learning process is "the threat of obsolescence" (1962, p. 280). A new set of assumptions are required because of a new force set loose: "the time-span of cultural revolution has for the first time in history become compressed into less than the lifetime of an individual" (p. 272). Hence education has to go beyond transmission of knowledge to helping persons gain competency in directing and managing their own learning.

Deliberate Efforts of Adults to Learn

Tough's research on adult learning projects appeared in 1971 shortly after Knowles' statement on andragogy. Submitted "a fresh approach to theory and practice in adult learning," the book reported the results of seven years' work by Tough and others on the deliberate efforts of adults "to learn, change and grow" (p. vii). While Tough's institutional home is in Canada, his research is widely known in the United States and has generated numerous studies here.

As the numerous studies on self-directed learning indicate, his research has stimulated the thinking of adult educators. His research has far reaching implications for all persons engaged in promoting or providing for the learning of adults. First, Tough formulated a way to identify and measure the deliberate learning efforts of adults, thus making this phenomena accessible to researchers and subject to measurement and classification. Though it is too early to tell, Tough's research may be viewed later as having the same impact that Thorndike's research on adult learning abilities and interests had in the late 1920s and early 1930s. Second, the extent to which adults of all occupations and social class levels engaged in deliberate efforts to learn was staggering: almost every adult engaged in these efforts. Third, this research compels providers of adult learning to view adult learning in a new way. Because learners take

the initiative to learn and learn independently of institutions, providers need to help adults enhance their abilities to learn autonomously. New policies, procedures, and support services will be required.

Tough's latest research went beyond deliberate learning efforts to study the broader area of intentional change. With intentional change as with learning projects, most adults managed the change process without assistance from others. What Tough has done, in effect, is to present an empirical base for learning as a self-help process. Indeed, Knowles and Tough describe adult learning in terms similar to the self-help literature in human services (Gartner and Riessman, 1977).

Perspective Transformation

Jack Mezirow's contribution to adult learning theory centered on his "discovery" of perspective transformation in his study of community college re-entry programs for women. In these programs, women experienced a unique kind of learning: learning the psychological and cultural assumptions that influenced how they saw themselves and their relationships. Mezirow called this perspective transformation (1978).

In a later article, Mezirow (1981) grounded his empirical and reflective observations in the critical theory of Jürgen Habermas. Habermas described three areas in which persons sought knowledge, and Mezirow translated these concepts into domains of adult learning: work, relationship, and emancipatory. Each of these has "its own interpretative categories, ways of assessing knowledge claims, methods of inquiry and, by implication, each with its own distinctive learning models and needs" (1981, p. 3).

Habermas' domain of emancipatory action is what Mezirow means by perspective transformation, and this is the uniquely adult domain of learning. Given this assumption, the basic task for adult educators is to help persons become aware of the psychocultural assumptions that have shaped how they see themselves and others and how they can reconstitute this structure so that they can recognize and deal with these "culturally induced dependency roles and relationships" (p. 7). Mezirow also draws upon Tough's research that showed that most adults continue to learn systematically throughout the adult years but usually independently of institutions and professional adult educators. Given this assumption, professional adult educators should respond to a learner's request for assistance in such a way as to equip the learner to become more self-directed in his/her learning.

CONCLUSIONS

It is both accurate and misleading to say that there has been a line of research on adult learning that has been systematically pursued by persons in concert with one another. The theories have evolved from the particular situations and interests of the researchers. Nevertheless, certain themes pervade each of the theories: the learner not the teacher, learning not education, process not content. Each of the theories posit the learner as a growing, changing, evolving person capable of directing his/her life. Learning is a central process in the life of the mature adult.

These theorists and others have pointed the way to what I call "the new adult learning." It rests upon these assumptions: (1) Adulthood is a period of development and change in which learning is a normal occurrence to be integrated into life tasks. (2) How adult learning is facilitated is a function of the characteristics of the adult learner. (3) The basic competency of the adult learner is the competency of learning. (4) The unique domain of adult learning is perspective transformation. (5) The basic task of the adult learning expert is to assist adults in a process of growth and change toward increased self-direction and self-awareness.

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THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CLASSROOM BEHAVIORS OF ADULT VIETNAMESE REFUGEES

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Abstract

A native American teacher of English as a Second Language to adult Vietnamese refugees often encounters classroom behaviors contrary to those encouraged in a democratic society. To some extent, these student behaviors result from frustration in learning a second language so different from their native one. Most obvious are the structural differences between the English and Vietnamese languages. Less apparent are the cultural values and societal pressures which influence attitudes toward education and affect second language acquisition. Classroom behavior reflects this cultural perspective. Instruction in English can be effective only when there is awareness of the affective and sociological factors in learning, as well as the cognitive processes involved.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

When Saigon became Ho Chi Minh City in 1975, the first wave of Vietnamese refugees came to the United States. Almost half a million people from Indochina sought refuge in the U.S. during 1975-76. For the most part, these immigrants were well educated, upper-class Vietnamese, Laotians, and Cambodians, who had been military officers or government officials until the Communist takeover. Their transition into American society was a relatively smooth process, because these were sophisticated urbanites. The "new immigrants" entering the country after 1977 presented a different problem to American educators, who were forced to consider how best to assimilate all these people into the mainstream of democratic society. The "Boat People" who followed their countrymen to the U.S. in order to escape the Communist regime were mostly from outlying rural areas. Some were ethnic Chinese who had lived for generations in Indochina. Others were from back-country or mountain areas, like the Hmong tribe of Laos. Many had never received formal schooling, and were illiterate in their own language. All but a few had spent grueling months in refugee camps in Cambodia or Laos. Their families had been torn apart by famine and war (Mennonite Central Committee, 1979).

For those who came later, it seemed that "the melting pot" would never come to a boil! Nguyen Tanh Thai was shy, dependent, and slow, stubbornly resisting the friendly, hearty, open ministrations of Mrs. McGinn, teacher of English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Mrs. M. was frustrated by the lack of response to her meticulous lesson plans, and confused because these same techniques had worked well to motivate Hispanic

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Note: Names of students and teachers throughout this paper are fictitious.

students the previous semester. Yet studies continued to show that Asian students, after a time in American schools, "caught up" and eventually surpassed Americans as a group (Ayabe and Santo, 1972; Stodolsky and Lesser, 1967; Chen and Goon, 1976).

The mystery began to unravel when Vietnamese cultural "liaisons" and resource people formulated guidelines for Americans who were working with this population. Even a cursory sampling of this material can provide insights for the teacher and counselor involved with ESOL students (Ladu, 1968; Bridge, 1978).

Exploration of important cultural traditions is essential for American teachers of immigrant students. This belief is held by many school administrators throughout the country. For the past several years, Montgomery County (Maryland) has conducted Multicultural Workshops as inservice training for all personnel who have contact with foreign students. The Center for Applied Linguistics at Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. (formerly the National Indochinese Clearinghouse, located in Arlington, Virginia), published a series of Refugee Education Guides. If "reaching" these students is a priority, educators must concentrate on teaching not only the specifics of grammatical structure and idiomatic expression, but also on the cultural aspects of American life so bewildering to the second language learner.

PHILOSOPHICAL VALUES

In a handbook prepared by a Vietnamese school psychologist in Illinois, three major philosophical strains were traced to find the roots of Oriental personality development. Buddhism stressed self-negation, modesty, and humility; Confucius taught respect for ancestors and tradition; and Taoists strove for harmony among men. These major values emerged: age brings wisdom; individual patience and self-negation are rewarded in a oneness with the eternal; truth exists for man to discover. Oriental tradition aims for social harmony: no conflict or confrontation. Politeness demands a smile and a nod for agreement, even when one does not agree. Because destiny is not known, one must endure and suffer what she does not understand. She cannot control her fate, but she can maintain her dignity in the face of it. Greek Stoicism is the parallel of this philosophy in Western thought.

The concept of "face" was stressed in a handbook for sponsors of Vietnamese refugees (Tobin and Koschman, 1978). Pride mandates that a person request no aid or charity except from his family. The extended family was so strong a unit that Social Security has been unnecessary in Southeast Asian countries. The family cared for its young until they were grown and for the old when they were no longer self-sufficient. Major decisions were made jointly, with the approval of all. Individualism or self-reliance were considered disrespectful, a sign that one was rebelling against the ways of ancestors.

Difficulties arose when the children of Indochinese refugees entered the American schools. Children of farmers and children of businessmen would not have sat in the same classroom, yet here they were grouped together.

A brief contrast between the ways of the two cultures follows:

Vietnamese

- a) Passive acceptance of one's life role.
- b) Humility, family control, social cooperation.
- c) Looking to the past for guidance.
- d) Harmony with nature.
- e) Spiritualism.
- f) Indirect, circular reasoning for "politeness."

American

- a) Active striving for "success."
- b) Aggressiveness, independence, freedom to compete.
- c) Future- and goal-oriented.
- d) Mastery over nature.
- e) Materialism.
- f) Direct confrontation, linear argument.

EFFECTS OF CULTURAL SHOCK IN THE CLASSROOM

Several handbooks for coping with Indochinese educational problems have been published, both in the United States and in Canada. One such guide began by emphasizing that although the linguistic differences are great between the English and the Vietnamese languages (phonology, intonation, syntax, orthography), the cultural differences are just as overwhelming (Manitoba Department of Education, 1980). The very gestures which accompany speech, as well as the customs and conventions of conversation, may lead to misunderstanding. Additional problems are the diverse educational methods and the social expectations in the two countries. In the classroom, even adult students followed their native communicative style:

1. "Yes" answered all direct questions. Disagreement would mean confrontation, resulting in insult to the teacher or display of one's ignorance.
2. No eye contact was made, and the face remained a mask. In this way, feelings could be hidden and a calm exterior maintained. Contrary to Western style, no clues from "body language," gestures, tone of voice, or facial expression of the speaker could be perceived by the listener.
3. In order to maintain self-control, one sat quietly with head down, taking notes, or with eyes downcast, listening to the lecture. A student spoke only when called upon. He would not say, "I don't know," but remained silent until passed over or dismissed by the teacher.
4. He engaged in no conversation or dialogue with his classmates, taking all direction from the teacher.

Despite the opposite social contexts, the American teacher can be helped toward appreciating these newest ESOL students. When Tanh Thi behaves politely and formally, as she was brought up, she is considered uncooperative and withdrawn. When she refuses to express her wishes or opinions, she is labelled "unmotivated." For her lack of eye contact and her stiff, straight posture, she becomes, in the teacher's eyes, "disturbed" or even, "dishonest." Mrs. McGinn complains that Tanh never displays her knowledge, never volunteers--never even accepts compliments! Tanh does not even admit when she is ill. Mrs. McGinn concludes that it must be "shyness" that prevents Tanh from asking for, or accepting, help.³

All the handbooks agree that before Tanh Thi can receive an effective education, Mrs. McGinn will need a cultural "briefing." Tanh's war experiences have been devastating enough. But in addition, she has witnessed a loss of parental authority and a breakdown of the family cohesion which was the basis of her life before. Her father is powerless to maintain traditions, and the world they knew no longer exists. Worst of all, Tanh Thi cannot communicate her fears to her own father, much less to a teacher whom she neither understands or trusts.

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

The whole weight of the Oriental culture and tradition is brought to bear upon the child to achieve success in school. Since scholars are held in such high esteem, the child would risk "loss of face" and bring shame to the family if he did not give his best effort. Asian schools offered little opportunity for physical exploration or manipulation of the environment, because the philosophical underpinnings of education claim no control for man over nature or fate. Shortage of books and materials made memorization

of lecture notes the main mode of learning. The authoritarian teacher provided not only all of the curriculum, but also the structure and circumstances under which it must be learned.

In contrast, the American school proffered a different set of expectations, born of the democratic ideal of independence in thought and action. In our society, children are to be "weaned away" from dependence, whereas in Asian cultures, the "shared-function" family discourages individuality. Where Oriental teachers expect memorization of a body of information and conformity to given standards, Americans expect contradictory goals of an analytical mind in a sociable body. The Vietnamese students react to this radical "switch in signals" by withdrawing and suffering in silence.

In the language of the American teacher, "quick" learners are those risk-taking, impulsive individuals who are the first to volunteer an answer. "Slow" learners are those who hold back and answer reluctantly when called upon. The Vietnamese child is brought up to respect his teachers, to cooperate with his peers, and to control his own actions and desires. The American child learns to be aggressive, to compete, and to question authority. No wonder that Vietnamese students are so often considered "unmotivated" by American teachers!

The Vietnamese student asks no questions and seeks no help because he does not want to insult the teacher by seeming to misunderstand, nor to reveal his own ignorance. The Vietnamese student is "slow" because he reflects upon his answers and prefers to be right rather than first. He is "passive" because he looks to his teacher and peers for approval and for direction. All of these behaviors are fostered by his own culture which has guided him toward self-effacement and humility, and by his family, which reared him to be interdependent with all his kin. And all of these behaviors are opposite to those that are expected in the American classroom.

The game-structured, role-playing American curriculum is strange to the Vietnamese student. He has been taught to listen to his teacher, mimic that model, take copious notes, memorize them, and produce, verbatim, in writing, whatever is given throughout the course at its conclusion. But American teachers ask questions for which there may be many answers, or none. They expect him to perform orally and spontaneously, when he has been patterned by his own culture to behave differently. Strangest of all, English tests often provide all the answers, and all the student must do is mark the correct ones!

In order to deal effectively with Indochinese students, the ESOL teacher must be aware of the vast cultural shock facing them. Programs such as the Multiculture Workshops conducted by many public school systems help educators to see briefly through other eyes. For example, a short film narrated by a Chinese high school student follows him from home to school and back again--literally, into two different worlds!

The affective and sociological factors in learning must be combined with those already researched in the cognitive area, so that a truer picture of the total learner can emerge. This is especially necessary in the field of ESOL, because of the complex and interactive nature of the cultural factors that influence educational motivation. Many teacher-training programs now incorporate a cultural component into language-study requirements.

Finally, those individuals who have achieved success in the Western world should be brought back into the classroom as tutors and peer counselors, to help their compatriots to conquer the cultural shock of life in a new world.

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Abstract

This study attempts to contribute to the building of a non-deficit perspective on illiterate adults through identification of some generalizations about positive characteristics of the social worlds constructed by illiterate adults. Participant observation and interviews were used with 43 illiterate adults in a medium-sized northeastern urban setting. Illiterate adults are found to participate in oral subcultures with specific oral traditions and cultural values and attitudes.

The United States is a literate nation, regardless of statistical evidence of high "functional illiteracy" rates. American adults live in a literate environment, characterized by a functional dependency on reading and writing and by the cultural attributes commonly associated with literacy in the West (Goody and Watt, 1968). Illiterate adults are understood primarily in terms of their inability to read and write; their skills, social organization and cultural values and attitudes are identified as deficient and in need of remediation. Many social scientists are engaged in a critical reappraisal of this approach, labeling it a "deficit model;" adult educators, however, have incorporated it into the conventional wisdom of the field, largely unexamined.

This study attempts to begin the process of building a non-deficit perspective of illiterate adults. Such a project rests on the assumption that there is some alternative to literate culture, and the task is to identify if there are generalizations that can be made about how illiterate adults construct their social worlds in positive ways. To address this question, participant observation and open-ended, unstructured interview methods in homes and workplaces were utilized over a 12-month period with a sample of 43 illiterate adults in a medium-sized northeastern urban area. Additional interviews were conducted with family members, friends and co-workers of each adult in the study, whenever feasible. All of the individuals quoted in this paper are illiterate adults; their names have been changed to protect their identities. This report reflects only some of the findings of the larger study (Fingeret, 1982).

I find that the illiterate adults in this study participate in oral subcultures that are consistent with descriptions of oral subcultures offered in the anthropological literature. Although the specific oral conventions, social structures, values and attitudes vary according to socioeconomic, ethnic and geographic community, there are generalizations that apply for all members of the group. In the sections that follow, I present an overview of the types of verbal behavior that characterize oral subcultures, the social structures that provide consistent opportunities for face-to-face interaction, and some of the values and attitudes that inform verbal interaction. In the last section, I discuss the relationship between oral and literate cultures, emphasizing the implications of this study for adult educators. This paper is not meant to provide an exhaustive description of oral subcultural characteristics, but rather to stimulate new conceptual approaches to American literacy work.

Types of Verbal Behavior

Speech may be understood with regard to two primary attributes: form (or structure of

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discourse) and content (or meaning). While both aspects are important at all times, their relative importance shifts according to the specific social situation. Verbal interaction may thus be understood on a continuum; under some conditions, speaking is seen as "performance," and the structure of discourse is most relevant for understanding the interchange. At the other end, the content is most salient in intimate dialog. This way of understanding language is fundamentally at odds with literate traditions, in which words are divorced from their interpersonal communicative context and the referent for meaning is the text itself.

The rules for ritual speech, or performance, among black city-dwellers have been studied extensively (Labov, 1972). In ritual speech events, although the words may be directed to a particular individual, the words are not meant to be taken literally or personally. Individuals respond according to the rules of performance, as Patricia explains:

When somebody is just throwing hard words at you, you have to answer back...If you don't say nothing, it's a weakness....I enjoy the word games on the streets. I'm a Leo, and Leo is fire...the most powerful sign. I love the power of words. Words and fire....You got to know how to conversate, how to use your words, like how to use your mind.

The white adults in this study do not engage in any oral conventions that are analogous to the ritual insults of the black subculture, but they do participate in oral conventions in which performance is valued and relative power is assessed. Susan describes adults who participate in these activities as troublemakers:

The troublemakers...., they attack you with words....If you answer them, no matter what you say, then that means that they can throw something back at you, attack you again; you give them an excuse to keep talking at you....Your tone of voice matters, and your body too....if you just use your mouth, and nothing else, nobody going to listen to you. It's got to be everything, your whole self....You want them to listen, not to your words, but to you.

In performance, utterance is seen as an act, rather than simply a statement about something (Austin, 1962; Bauman, 1977). Performance is used, often, to preserve social distance. In Susan's neighborhood, for example, there are a number of groups that dislike each other. Susan describes the importance of appropriate performance:

When I come home and (my neighbors) are sitting outside, I say hi to them and maybe a few words about how are you and the weather--nothing that has any meaning, just being polite so they won't bother me or my kids...Saying hello is polite, but walking over there is being nosey. Asking questions that has meaning is being nosey too.

Performance has the potential to influence social structure; good performers earn status and some control over their audiences. Control of information and social status also are related to gossip, another kind of performance speech event in which the meaning of the words assumes a larger importance as participants engage in managing the flow of information.

Illiterate adults do not have access to many of the sources of information available to the literate public. They must decode the social world well enough to tell fact from fiction and ally from foe. "Truth" is an elusive concept in the social world; the illiterate adults in this study have finely developed skills for judging the validity of the content of speech.

You can tell when someone is lying. You can tell, sometimes, just by the expression on their face....And...from how someone

holds their body, just so, and they look at you funny....
If you watch someone and listen good, you can tell. It's
written all over. (Susan)

When the illiterate adults in this study need to turn to somebody they can trust, they call on a small group of intimate friends and family members. They know that there exists a shared framework of interpretation, norms, and values, as well as a respect for confidences. Here the feelings and meanings conveyed by the content of speech are most important:

With my close friends, ...we listen to each other, and
we really communicate. It's a two-way thing. You don't
have to watch how you talk, we just talk to each other.
Out on the streets, you don't listen. They just talk, and
then you talk. (Susan)

Context for Face-to-Face Interaction

Conventional wisdom depicts illiterate adults leading isolated lives in dangerous neighborhoods permeated by the threat of violence. I found, however, that most illiterate adults create rich interactive social worlds, or networks, which provide consistent opportunity for face-to-face interaction and co-exist with their often hostile geographic environment. Social networks have two parts: the inner and the extended network. Inner network relationships are characterized by reciprocal exchange relations and often primarily include kin; extended networks include those with whom there is a consistent relationship but with a lesser degree of interdependence. Extended network relationships are rarely invoked for aid, and may include employers or representatives of caretaker agencies.

Illiterate adults include readers of varying degrees of skill within their inner networks; a variety of skills and knowledge are offered in exchange for assistance reading or writing. Illiterate adults, therefore, are not identified as dependent, within their own cultural milieu, as long as they participate in reciprocal exchange relationships. Social networks support those illiterate adults who are attempting to live and work within the larger literate society. These illiterate adults develop heterogeneous inner networks which include a number of educated and literate people who can aid in the decoding of the literate culture and traditions.

Common Sense and Experience

Personal experience is the primary source of legitimate knowledge, and knowledge becomes more suspect as it is farther and farther removed from its source in the social world. Books, which are written to stand apart from interpersonal communication, represent a kind of ultimate distance from face-to-face communication of personal experience. Books also are removed from the authority that may be vested in the relationship between speaker and listener. Dress, tone of voice, posture, gestures, expression--none of these cues are available for illiterate adults attempting to evaluate the claims made in written material. Sadie summarizes:

Who wrote the book could put what they want to put in there.
And my foreparents, they witnessed this....As over the genera-
tions they going to tell their children so their children would
know. See, the thing what my parents tell me, I believe it's
true. A book, you can put in just what they want to.

What is it about experiences that legitimizes knowledge? The answer lies in the oral subcultural concept of common sense. While empirical science can be seen as relating things to one another, common sense relates them to the social world (Lomergan, 1957). Common sense generalizations are pointers, or incomplete generalizations which must be kept in mind and applied as the situation dictates; insight into the situation provides the missing information. Common sense is concrete, specific knowledge-in-context designed to inform immediate action. Common sense is collaborative, in that each generation tests the common

sense inherited from generations past. Experience in the social world is necessary for updating the collective wisdom passed on by elders. Common sense and experience in the social world go hand-in-hand, as adults assess a situation and take appropriate action.

Daily Life

In the oral subculture, events structure time, rather than the reverse. The material conditions of poverty, a reality for many illiterate adults, further encourage a culture of "getting by," of working with the resources available to do whatever needs to be done. A project, whether it is preparing a meal or fixing a car, is partially defined by the resources available, and the results of one task become the means for another. A special food list is rarely drawn up to support a recipe, but rather the meal will be designed around the available food. Time is one of the resources treated this way; the day is not organized to accommodate responsibilities, but tasks are ordered as they match the characteristics of the day. Sadie is retired now, free to organize her day as she pleases. Her "schedule:"

I get in my garden early in the morning, ...while it's still nice and cool. When it get too hot--may be a hour, two hour --I sit down a while, eat my breakfast, take my bath, then I see what everybody doing....See if somebody need me and what's happening....Try to get home by dark....Now, there's things need to get done, they get done....I see you writing down all your schedules (points to my appointment book on the table, laughing). Some things can't be wrote down beforehand, only after.

This rhythm of daily life is evaluated negatively, often, by the literate culture in which planning is a university field of study. Western science aims at controlling nature, or at least predicting the behavior of the natural and social worlds. Members of the oral subculture are immersed in these worlds, viewing efforts to "think about" rather than to "do" as energy which is misdirected and dubiously productive.

Implications and Conclusions

Oral subcultures in the United States are far from pure. The status of subculture implies an antagonistic relationship with some dominant culture, and, indeed, oral subcultures must incorporate or respond to many of the literate culture's social structures and cultural values. The relationship between the oral and literate cultures has been problematic since Plato's time, and continues to be troublesome as the dominant, literate culture downgrades the oral subculture.

Some of the characteristics of oral subculture appear to conflict with the literate culture's values. The oral tradition's communal orientation is seen as undermining individual ambition and mobility. Common sense is disregarded as an "inability" to conceptualize. "Making do" with one's resources is interpreted as poor planning or disrespect for other's time. Literacy, connected to moral and intellectual development historically, is used as an indicator of the ability to engage in the social world, to think logically, and to function as parent, spouse, worker and citizen. Literacy, however, does not, by itself, necessarily transform oral perspectives to literate ones, nor does illiteracy cause the oral subculture. Many literate adults live intermingled with the illiterate participants in this study, and they also participate in the oral subcultural perspective.

For those of us engaged in adult literacy education, this study raises many issues. We must recognize that our valuing of literacy and our view of literacy as central to competent functioning is directly related to our literate cultural perspective. It is not necessarily shared by those with whom we work; in their cultural contexts common sense, experience, and strong, reciprocal inner social networks are more important. Instructional approaches which help illiterate adults see the relationship between oral and written language are supported by this research, while highly technologically-oriented approaches such as programmed texts may represent a planning and organizing process that is alien to our students. Home tutoring and community-based program models are consistent with the

importance placed on social networks, although a distinction must be drawn between geographic neighborhood and network community. Centralized programs, even when located in a geographically familiar setting, force adults, often, to choose between the security of the network and program participation. Illiterate adults are proud of their achievements; many are supporting families and encouraging their children's school participation. Literacy programs that continue to publicize their efforts in terms of providing help to incompetent illiterate adults who are unable to cope with daily life will only alienate those they seek to serve.

We, as educators, must recognize that we are representatives of the literate culture; we have a responsibility to understand the implications of our cultural perspective as well as to learn the characteristics of the culture of our students. We can explore the elements of oral culture in our own lives, and the conflicts that arise for us between common sense and abstract reasoning, our need for the security of intimate relationships as well as the rewards of individual accomplishment, and the tension between thinking about something and concretely interacting with the social world. Only when we accept illiterate adults as equal members of the human community will we be able to engage in the dialog that will provide the foundation for more successful adult literacy efforts in the United States.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING GED TEST SCORES OF
MALE U.S. ARMY PERSONNEL

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which selected personal and situational characteristics of U.S. Army personnel contributed to the variance in GED scores. The sample consisted of 193 U.S. Army personnel at Fort Bragg, NC. Data analysis included correlation, least squares means analysis and step-wise multiple regression. The findings indicated that at least five of the characteristics would be useful in predicting GED scores. A formula for predicting GED scores is presented.

INTRODUCTION

Since the termination of the Selective Service System and the inception of the all-volunteer Army, the number of male non-high school graduates entering the Army has risen from near zero to 30 percent. Many of these individuals are unable to cope effectively with civilian life, due in some part to their limited education.

The Army's educational policy is such that while an individual may enlist without having completed high school, he must attain a high school diploma or the equivalent by the end of his first enlistment if he wishes to make the Army a career. Some individuals take formal high school courses in order to complete the requirements for a diploma. For the majority, the requirements are met by taking the General Educational Development (GED) test. The GED test battery consists of five tests: 1. correctness and effectiveness of expression, 2. interpretation of reading material in the social studies, 3. interpretation of reading materials in the natural sciences, 4. interpretation of literary materials, and 5. general mathematical ability.

Passing the GED test is extremely important to the non-high school graduate. Failure can result in his being denied career status in the Army and preclude his being admitted to service schools or institutions of higher learning.

The Army is faced with the task of providing appropriate educational assistance to those enlistees who wish to meet its educational requirements. However, little research has been done that is useful to military educational counselors in predicting success with the GED test and the identification of individuals best able to profit from the limited remedial programs offered by the Army.

In view of the need for more reliable and valid predictors of success with the GED test, a study (2) was undertaken recently at North Carolina State University involving personnel at Fort Bragg, North Carolina. This paper focuses on the findings of that study.

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PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

One purpose of the North Carolina study was to determine the degree to which certain personal and situational characteristics of U.S. Army personnel were related to scores achieved on the GED test. The primary purpose was to determine which characteristics actually contributed to the variance in GED scores.

THE SAMPLE

The study sample consisted of 193 male Army personnel at Fort Bragg, North Carolina, electing to take the GED test during the month of July, 1979, and volunteering to participate in the study.

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The study utilized the survey design. A questionnaire was used to obtain demographic and personal data from respondents. Test scores were gleaned from personnel records. The questionnaires were administered by test officials at three Educational Center branches at Fort Bragg. Responses were validated from individual personnel records. The major statistical techniques employed in the data analysis were frequency distributions, Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation, least squares means analysis and step-wise multiple regression.

RESULTS

The personal and situational characteristics of the respondents examined in the study were age, G. T. score, rank, length of military service, amount of travel in the USA and abroad, GED preparation time, years of schooling, reasons for taking the GED test, and sources of information (reading habits).

The General-Technical score (G. T. score) derives from combining the scores of two aptitude tests, the General Test and the Technical Test. The tests are given to all Army enlistees. The G. T. score is the largest determinant of eligibility for various service schools. It measures mathematical and verbal skills. No studies were found related to the use of G. T. scores to predict GED scores.

The review of literature revealed a limited number of studies which showed GED scores to be related to such factors as age, travel, preparation time, and motivation for taking the GED test.

Moser and Muirhead (6) using draftees for their study, as opposed to volunteers, found correlations between age and GED test scores to range from .13 to .16. The correlations were statistically significant at the .05 level but tended to be low. Carbuhn (3), in his study of job corpsmen, not military personnel, found that there was a slight positive correlation between age and GED test scores. Merrill (5) found that there was a positive correlation between travel overseas and the scores attained by college freshmen on their entrance examinations. No studies were found relating travel to GED scores. One study (4) involving civilian GED students engaged in an adult education program revealed that there was a positive correlation between time spent preparing for the tests and the test score, i.e., the more time spent the higher the score. In a study involving civilian GED students, Beusse (1) found a positive correlation between GED scores and self-motivation for taking the tests.

The results of this study generally supported the literature. The correlation matrix showed a high correlation between GED test scores and 11 of the 13 variables tested. The most significant correlations with GED test scores were G. T. score and sources of information (reading habits), both on total test score and sub-test scores.

Correlational analysis can be misleading and misinterpreted. The fact that one phenomenon is positively correlated with another does not necessarily mean that one influences the other.

In order to determine which of the variables actually influenced GED scores, a least squares means analysis was performed using the 11 variables significantly correlated with the GED test score. The least squares means analysis measures the effect of each variable on the GED score with adjustments made for each of the other variables in the model.

As shown in Table 1, the R^2 value was .62 indicating that 62 percent of the variance in GED scores was accounted for by the variables in the model. However, only five of the variables, G. T. score, newspapers, magazines, books, and Army publications reading habits accounted for a significant amount of the variance. One variable - preparation time - approached the .05 level of significance.

TABLE 1

LEAST SQUARES MEANS ANALYSIS ON THE EFFECTS OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS ON GED TEST SCORES (N=193)

CHARACTERISTIC	df	SS	F-Value	Prob F
TOTAL ($R^2 = .62$)	192	207335.1	22.3	.0001
Age	1	125.2	0.28	.5953
GT Score	1	13649.6	30.90	.0001
Rank	1	169.9	0.38	.5362
Length of Service	1	1394.3	3.15	.0775
Travel Overseas	1	571.3	1.29	.2572
Preparation Time	1	1562.2	3.53	.0618
Prior Years of School	1	226.4	0.51	.4752
Newspapers	1	4331.0	9.80	.0020
Magazines	1	6748.7	15.26	.0001
Books	1	3214.0	7.25	.0077
Army Publications	1	6546.7	14.80	.0002

TABLE 2

STEP-WISE MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS ON GED TEST SCORES

CHARACTERISTICS	R^2	SS	F-Value	Prob F
Step 1. GT Score	.37	687.1	110.8	.0001
Step 2. Army Publications	.12	558.8	90.5	.0001
Step 3. Magazines	.07	491.3	77.6	.0001
Step 4. Books	.03	462.8	64.9	.0001
Step 5. Newspapers	.01	446.5	55.5	.0001
Step 6. Preparation Time	.01	440.9	47.4	.0001

To carry the analysis one step further, the data were subjected to the step-wise multiple regression procedure. The five variables which met the .05 significance level plus the one approaching significance were entered in the model. Table 2 shows the results of the analysis. Examination of the R^2 values in Table 2 reveals that 37 percent of the variance in GED test scores were attributed to G. T. score, 12 percent to reading Army publications, 7 percent to reading magazines, 3 percent to reading books, and 1 percent to reading newspapers. Preparation time accounted for less than 1 percent of the variance.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the study indicate that at least five of the variables examined would be useful in predicting GED test scores for military servicemen at Fort Bragg. The variables are G. T. score, Army publications, magazines, books, and newspapers (reading habits). The other variables examined - age, rank, time in service, travel, years of schooling, reason for taking the tests, and preparation time - should be used only with caution.

It is suggested that a formula similar to the one outlined below might be developed for use in predicting GED scores for military servicemen. The formula is based on the findings of the study.

The step-wise multiple regression analysis revealed that 60 percent of the variance in GED scores was attributed to the five variables as follows: G. T. score, 37 percent; Army publications reading habits, 12 percent; magazine reading habits, 7 percent; books reading habits, 3 percent; newspaper reading habits, 1 percent. To arrive at the formula, the percent of variance in GED score accounted for by each variable was divided by the total amount of variance accounted for by the five variables multiplied by the minimum (GED test) passing score (225). For example:

G. T. Score:	37/60 x 225	=	139
Army publications:	12/60 x 225	=	45
Magazines:	7/60 x 225	=	26
Books:	3/60 x 225	=	11
Newspapers:	1/60 x 225	=	4
	TOTAL		225

The minimum G. T. scores of participants who passed the GED test ranged from 98 to 106. A score of an even 100 was selected arbitrarily for inclusion in the formula. The G. T. value of 139 produces a constant of 1.39 when divided by 100 as the minimum G. T. passing score. The individual's G. T. score is multiplied by this constant.

The amount of reading of the various publications by the respondents in the study was determined by asking them if they read the various publications "none," "little," or "much." The mean GED scores of those who indicated they read each of the four publications "much" were well above passing. The mean GED scores of those reading books and Army publications "some" were slightly above passing. Those who indicated they read newspapers "some" or "none," magazines "some" or "none," books "none," and Army publications "none" did not achieve a mean GED passing score.

The values related to reading habits were determined from the analysis of data shown in the above example. A value of 45 was given to "some" reading of Army publications, a value of 26 was given to "much" reading of magazines, a value of 11 was given to "some" reading of books, and a value of 4 was given to "much" reading of newspapers.

The following scorecard was developed:

PREDICTIVE GED SCORECARD

1. G. T. score _____	x 1.39	=	_____
<u>Reading Habits</u>			
<u>Source of Information</u>	<u>Amount of Reading</u>		
	<u>None</u>	<u>Some</u>	<u>Much</u>
2. Army publications	40	45	49
3. Magazines	20	23	26
4. Books	9	11	12
5. Newspapers	2	3	4
Predicted GED Score _____			

Data on each participant in the study were placed on the individual scorecards. Based on the formula, 69 should have passed and 124 should have failed the GED test. In actuality, 89 passed and 104 failed. The percentage of error was 26.14 percent. According to the admissions office at North Carolina State University, "an error of less than 30 percent for predicting test scores is exceptionally good."

IMPLICATIONS

The study showed that there were significant relationships between certain personal and situational characteristics of male Army personnel and scores on the GED list. At least five of these characteristics would appear to be useful in predicting success on the GED test.

It is suggested that a formula similar to the one constructed in this study might be developed for use in predicting GED scores for Army personnel. Such a formula would aid the military counselor in identifying relatively quickly those individuals who could profit from remedial education as well as those who might pass the GED test with little or no preparation. The results would be savings in both time and resources.

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THE PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF LIFELONG LEARNING

Aristotle Michopoulos¹

Abstract

Although Lifelong Learning is to many a modern day idea, its philosophical foundations go back to ancient China, India, and Greece. It was in Greece, however, that its ideals were first fully expressed in the concept of paideia, which would extend beyond the years of schooling and would last throughout the whole life (Marrou, 1964). While paideia first appears in Homer, its full crystallization takes place during the classical period under the influence of such giants of thought as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. The knowledge, then, of the factors that contributed to its flourishing in ancient times could assist us today in our efforts to become a learning society.

As previously stated, the first signs of lifelong learning can be traced to Homer's paideia which is strengthened during the following centuries with the teachings of the pre-Socratic philosophers, writers and poets -- from Hesiod and Heraclitus to Theognis and Pindar. Further, enhanced by prudent policies and legislation (Solon, Chilon, Periander, etc.) as well as the teachings of the sophists and philosophers within an atmosphere of freedom, lifelong learning as an expression of paideia would reach its all-time peak during the classical period (5th-4th ce. B.C.), turning Greece into the paideusis of the world.

PURPOSE AND METHOD OF STUDY

Since lifelong learning is emerging as the new master concept in education the study of an ancient antecedent seemed quite in order. Moreover, this researcher considered that an in-depth examination of the philosophical underpinnings of the concept in ancient times would be of great value to us in guiding and shaping our current efforts towards a learning society.

To gain a holistic view of the subject, the presently reported study went through the following series of steps: a. a brief overview of past and current conceptualizations of lifelong learning, b. an in-depth analysis of the philosophical groundings of the concept in ancient Greece, c. an examination of the various factors that contributed to its emergence and decline, and d. implications derived from the inquiry. The present inquiry will focus its examination on the philosophical foundations of lifelong learning and will discuss parts a, c, and d briefly and only in a manner that will enhance the understanding of the paper. (For a lengthy discussion of these parts the reader is referred to research carried out by this writer and Dr. Boucouvalas appearing in the references.)

A careful examination revealed a host of positive factors that were pivotal to the emergence and flourishing of the concept, but it also revealed other negative factors which led to its decline. An inspection of the results yielded in each of the above steps follows. This abbreviated rendition should provide the reader with an overview of the more expanded version presented at the conference.

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PAST AND CURRENT CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF LIFELONG LEARNING

The current lifelong learning movement is the child of the latter part of our century. While the two world wars brought a heavy blow to world education, in a different way they became the catalysts for its reshaping and expansions, as well as for the emergence of lifelong learning as the new force towards global education. Thus the lifelong learning movement owes a great deal to the two peaceful offspring of the two great wars, i.e., the League of Nations (1920) and the United Nations (1945).

Another league in ancient times, i.e., the Delian League (478 B.C.), an offspring of the Persian Wars, would become the catalyst for the full flourishing of paideia during the classical period. And as Athens, the prime victor of the Persian Wars, became the founder of the Delian League and the educator of the ancient world, similarly the United States, the principal victor of the two world wars, was instrumental in the establishment of the two modern leagues and became the major educator of our world.

The lifelong learning movement has then passed through various stages and phases to reach its current level of concrete conceptualizations and maturity. To attain this advanced stage, however, it has utilized the talents of many philosophers, researchers and writers of our time, such as Dave (1973), Hutchins (1968), Thomas (1961) and Mumford (1956). Thus, just as in ancient Greece the philosophers and scientists would get their creative stimulus from the environment of the polis, similarly our researchers today are stimulated by our greatly expanded polis. Indeed, it was the sponsorship of this tremendously expanded multi-racial "polis", i.e. the United Nations, that provided the crucial thrust to our lifelong learning movement, thus the publication of Learning to Be (1972) by UNESCO and the UNESCO Conference in Nairobi (1976).

THE PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATIONS OF LIFELONG LEARNING: AN ANCIENT ANTECEDENT

Philosophy and pedagogy were the mature flowers of the classical Greek thought. Having solved the problems of daily existence through agriculture, conquests and commerce during the previous centuries, the Greek mind had now all the prerequisites to delve into the inquiry of the eternal philosophical problems and make paideia its chief preoccupation.

But what is actually meant by paideia? Paideia is such a complex concept that when one talks about it "it is impossible to avoid bringing in modern expressions like civilization, culture, tradition, literature, or education. But none of them really covers what the Greeks meant by paideia. Each one of them is confined to one aspect of it: they cannot take in the same field as the Greek concept unless we employ them all together" (Jaeger, 1945: vi). The richness of paideia, then, encompasses both education and culture at the same time. While its original meaning was limited in scope, expressing the warlike arete of the Homeric period, in its maximalist perspective of the classical period and thereafter paideia became coterminous with lifelong learning.

Homer, then, with his references to Achilles's paideia next to Centaur Chiron (Kevane, 1970) and his famous "αἰὲν ἀριστεύειν" would become the first Greek pedagogue, to be followed by another warrior-poet, Tyrtaeus. This early body of paideia is steadily enlarged with the work of the many pre-Socratic philosophers, writers and poets, such as Hesiod, Theognis and Pindar (6th ce.), who praise the ideals of the Greek culture.

In a similar vein, most of the seven wise men of ancient Greece would not only praise the eternal value of paideia, i.e. Solon, Periander, Pittacus, etc., but would also actively support it whenever they were in power. Thus Solon (c.640-c.560 B.C.) and Periander (c.625-585 B.C.), when they wielded their power over Athens and Corinth did not only praise but also strongly supported the paideia of their poleis, turning them into centers of the Muses. Their deep love and concern for paideia is further attested to by the great number of maxims (over 40) that these wise men and the pre-Socratic philosophers left behind us (Kehayopoulos, 1981). A few examples, i.e. "I grow old always learning more" (Γηράσκω ἀεὶ

πολλά διδασκόμενος - Solon), "Study everything" (Μελέτα τό πᾶν - Periander), "It is difficult to know thyself" (Χαλεπόν ἐαυτὸν γινῶναι - Thales), "Learning changes the human being" (Ἡ διδασκὴ μεταρρυθμίζει τὸν ἄνθρωπον - Democritus), are sufficient evidence to our lifelong learners that questions occupying their mind today had also been the concern of their ancient forefathers.

Thus the rich body of paideia expressed by these and many other philosophers and poets during the pre-classical period would become the intellectual haven for the growth of Greek civilization - from Marseilles to North Africa and the Black Sea - during the following centuries. Its enrichment during the classical period would give rise to an unprecedented level of culture that would create the first learning society (Mumford, 1956; Kitto, 1976), which is manifested in the works of the many giants of the arts and sciences of that period. From the long list of philosophers, sophists and poets who cultivated paideia during that period, we should mention here Protagoras, Gorgias and Hippias, the great trio of sophists who revolutionized the thinking of their time and advocated the utilitarian aspects of paideia. The great tragic poets, on the other hand, would bring a balance to that movement by expressing the humanitarian aspects of paideia. Thus Protagoras's skepticism and cynic realism (Hussey, 1972) about gods and men, i.e. "man is the measure of all things" (πάντων χρημάτων μέτρον ὁ ἄνθρωπος), would be tempered by the Sophoclean and Aeschylean idealism and belief in humanistic paideia, which is a lifelong process, that is, "learning is good, even to an old person" (καλὸν δὲ καὶ γέροντα μαθάνειν σοφῶς - Aeschylus).

Thus paideia was at the forefront of the polis's activities and for the best of men it was "the highest of all ideal values" (πρῶτον τῶν καλλίστων). Its final crystallization, however, would take place during and especially after the Socratic era. Since the number of the writers, philosophers and pedagogues of this period is quite large, we will confine our research on the views held on this subject by some key shapers of the ancient thought and history, that is, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Isocrates and Xenophon.

Socrates is the first to become fully immersed into the examination of such questions as "what is truth" or "what is virtue" and pronounce his famous "ἐν οἷδ᾽ ὅτι οὐδὲν οἶδ᾽" (I know one thing, that I know nothing). To Socrates, education is not the cultivation of certain abilities; to him "the real essence of education is that it enables men to reach the true aim of their lives" (Jaeger, 1943, p. 69). This effort cannot be restricted to the few years of higher education. "Either it takes a whole lifetime to reach its aim, or its aim can never be reached" (Jaeger, 1943, p. 69). In his Apology he will note that his search for truth and attainment of paideia is a lifelong one and, therefore, he would continue as long as he lived to question and learn through his proverbial dialogues the meaning of "kalon" and "agathon," of truth and phronesis.

In this sense, for Socrates, man was born for paideia, since it is his only real possession. Thus through him "the concept and the meaning of paideia took on a broader and deeper spiritual significance and that its value for man was raised to the highest point" (Jaeger, 1943, p. 70). This gadfly of Athens, then, becomes the personification of the lifelong learner, who considers that 70 years of learning are not enough for an individual's growth. Thus, through his own example, Socrates contributed immensely to the growth of paideia and became the catalyst for the self-actualization of scores of brilliant minds of this period, the most notable among which is Plato.

Plato is not only the greatest of the Greek philosophers, but also the prime educator of Greece. His monumental work on paideia, expressed primarily in his Laws and also in the Republic, remains to this day unsurpassed. With him the word paideia is amplified and crystallized, reaching its current meaning. Plato will see its need as ranging from birth to death, since paideia for him is "the moulding of the soul," and "the teaching of arete, which begins with childhood, and makes us wish to become perfect citizens" (Jaeger, 1944, p. 224).

So Plato, in his Republic, perceives the ideal state as the ideal paideia fulfilled. Since the eudemonia of the state depends on its paideia, then the most important mission for paideia would be to create a favourable environment in which it can be carried on. In this context, perhaps the best description of the power and importance of paideia for the human being is to be found in his unparalleled parable of the Cave, appearing in his Republic (Plato, 1952). Plato contributed as nobody else to the cause of lifelong learning, both through his ideas and the establishment of his famous Academy, that became the world light-house of paideia for the next thousand years, that is till 529 A.D.

Socrates' shocking end, together with the catastrophic effects of the Peloponnesian War, would leave an indelible mark on the perception of paideia both to Plato and his contemporary Isocrates. But while for Plato and his teacher paideia had an "ethical doctrine and transcendental implications," for Isocrates paideia was something more tangible. Isocrates in Antidosis, his main work on paideia, will strongly disagree with Plato on the applicability of his lofty ideas on paideia and the duty of the state to educate its citizens. However, he will join him in his attack against the contemporary demagogues and mob rule of Athens. Finally, the expanding boundaries of the ancient world and deep faith in the value of paideia are shown in Isocrates's pronouncement that he considered as Greeks those partaking of the Greek paideia

Aristotle, Plato's student par excellence, brings about the final crystallization on paideia. Reflecting the evolving scientific spirit of his time, Aristotle struck a fine balance between the Platonic and Isocratic notions on paideia, being fully aware of the distance between real and ideal. Alexander the Great was not the first to recognize his teacher's influence upon him, stating his famous "I owe my life to my father, but the meaning of life to my teacher." In a similar fashion, Aristotle will exert a profound influence upon the educators and philosophers of his time and thereafter, through the plethora of his writings and the founding of his Peripatetic School. Moreover, with his statements that learning is a characteristic not of philosophers in particular but of every human being and that "all men by nature desire knowledge" ("ὁ ἄνθρωπος φύσει τοῦ εἰδέναι ὀρέγεται" - Metaphysics, I, 1) Aristotle stands out as one of the strongest supporters of lifelong learning.

Xenophon, in contrast to his teacher Socrates, will travel extensively and his first-hand knowledge of both the Persian and Spartan systems will exert a strong influence on him. Thus Xenophon will praise the Persian paideia, but he will also admit that it is confined only to an elite while in Greece and especially in Sparta it is a possession of all the citizens. His successful military experience will make him pronounce that soldiering is "the best education for a truly noble man" (Jaeger, 1944, p. 163). Moreover, his predilection for "law and order" and his disillusionment with his native Athens will bring him closer to Sparta and its educational system, in which he finds many merits, especially in the state-supported education, the eugenic breeding, and the lifelong education through state supervision.

THE RISE AND FALL OF PAIDEIA

As previously discussed paideia took a long time to reach its full bloom during Pericles' Golden Age, which turned Athens into the paideusis of Greece (Thucydides, 1963, II, 41) and Greece, through Alexander's conquests, into the paideusis of the world (Starr, 1980, p. 169). Paideia flourished in Greece and especially in Athens because of the fertile ground it found there. A careful examination of the factors contributing to this first points to the increased freedom that prevailed in Athens after the Persian Wars, due to a number of political and administrative changes which broadened and deepened the democratization process that had started at the turn of the 6th century with the monumental work of Solon and Pisistratus. Within a century this fertile environment of political and social freedom, general education, and good administration, would propel Athens to a higher plane and would make it the unquestionable educational, cultural, and economic leader of Greece. The creation of the Delian League would become the catalyst that would transform the polis of Athens into the Empire of Athens. This phenomenal growth of Athens, however, carried within itself the seeds of decline, which can be seen in its hybriatic attitude towards its

friends and enemies before and during the Peloponnesian Wars. The tremendous stress of the war on the Athenians is manifested in their senseless trial and fine of Pericles, the self-exile of Thucydides to avoid their wrath, and their sentencing of Socrates to death.

This tragic peripeteia of the Athenian Republic is perhaps the best depiction of the strengths and weaknesses of a democratic system. As long as citizens and leaders utilize the system for the common good, the system works and flourishes, but when they use it for personal gain or self-aggrandizement, then, it sooner or later collapses. The substantial weakening of the naval and economic power of Athens after the War would be later marked by a decline in its educational and cultural power. The rise of the Macedonian star a little later would further weaken the Athenian economic and cultural supremacy, as new centers of commerce and knowledge would now emerge in the vast empire of Alexander. Their emergence would put an additional stress on the intellectual resources of the mainland (Plutarch, 1976) and in time these centers would become a brain drain and source of competition to the mainland centers, such as Athens. Finally, Greece's fall to Rome (146 B.C.) would not only diminish the Greeks' creative force but would also spread their already stressed intellectual resources thinner as they would now become the teachers of the expanded Roman Empire.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It becomes apparent, then, that certain factors enhance while others impede the growth of paideia. Among the first we could include freedom of speech, freedom from poverty, and freedom from government mismanagement. These freedoms could become the foundations on which paideia can grow and thrive. Good luck and charismatic leadership could be an additional bonus.

The lack or loss of such factors can only impede the smooth functioning of a state and its paideia. It seems, then, that the real problem of such a state is to maintain a fine balance between these factors. Deterioration in any of them or excesses from leaders or citizens can only harm a state and its institutions. What we could, then, learn today is that paideia and freedom need a constant vigilance; they require civic self-sacrifice and wise leaders, not "wise-guys." Then the pivotal role of the citizens in the attainment of such goals is self-evident: they should be sensitive and sensible enough to distinguish a democratic from a demagogic leader, they should put the common weal above their personal profit, and should strive always for the best, or "αἰὲν ἀριστεύειν," as Homer had long ago proclaimed.

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HIGHER EDUCATION LOOKS AT TUITION ASSISTANCE:
THE CORPORATE CONNECTION

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Abstract

One way in which higher education institutions can reach more adults is through employer-sponsored tuition assistance plans. This study provides background information about tuition assistance, including current utilization, barriers to participation, and future potential. Implications for practice include suggestions aimed at helping colleges and universities work more closely with employers, offer increased information about educational opportunities, and provide greater access to instruction and student support services.

Current educational literature contains many references to cooperation between business and higher education. Although many employers wish to provide education for their employees, they do not always feel that higher education has been responsive to their needs. In a related vein, colleges and universities across the country are looking for new markets; the employed adult appears to form one of these markets.

Tuition assistance plans offer a very real opportunity for educational institutions to work closely with employers in developing a more skilled and educated work force. As increasing numbers of employers provide tuition assistance benefits, colleges and universities are becoming more aware of the potential inherent in such plans. For continuing educators who hope to increase and perhaps diversify their cooperation with employers, tuition assistance plans offer an avenue for cooperation.

The current study on tuition assistance grew out of a recommendation made by a committee studying Penn State's role in continuing professional and occupational education. The committee recommended that continuing education program planners be made more aware of educational benefits programs of employers. Planning Studies responded to this recommendation by undertaking the study described in this paper. The research objective was to explore the ways in which Penn State could work with business and industry, through their tuition assistance programs, to better meet employees' educational needs.

METHODOLOGY

The result of this investigation is a report on tuition assistance, developed primarily for use by Penn State's Continuing Education staff members. In order to bring together information for the report, a number of avenues were explored. A literature search was done to acquire information on tuition assistance plans and their utilization. In addition, interviews were conducted with researchers in tuition assistance, University

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faculty members and Continuing Education staff members, business and industry representatives, and labor educators.

FINDINGS

Tuition assistance plans, in which an employer pays part or all of an employee's educational costs, are prevalent in many companies. Such plans are a negotiated benefit in a number of union contracts as well. Plans often vary regarding payment procedures, payment amount, eligible employees, and courses covered.

Some employers need to provide specific education and training to develop or maintain a skilled work force, and thus are likely to utilize tuition assistance as an employee development tool. Other companies, which already have an abundance of educated employees, may offer tuition assistance plans strictly as a fringe benefit. These basic differences in the plans' purposes often affect the ways in which benefits are administered.

In 1978, it was estimated that 1.6 million workers were covered under 198 different negotiated tuition assistance plans (Charner *et al.*, 1978). Because millions of additional workers are included in nonnegotiated plans, the amount of money allocated for tuition assistance is enormous.

Despite this vast potential, most tuition assistance plans have very low participation rates, ranging from approximately 3 to 7 percent (Charner, *et al.*, 1978). There are exceptions, however. For example, the National Institute of Work and Learning conducted and published case studies of three organizations which have notably higher participation rates (Wirtz, 1979). Consistent with general patterns of participation in adult education, a higher proportion of white collar than blue collar employees utilize tuition assistance benefits.

From these case studies and other demonstration projects sponsored by the National Institute of Work and Learning (1980), a list of factors which seem to encourage participation has emerged (Wirtz, 1979). Participation tends to be higher in companies whose plans have the following features:

- payment in advance
- top management support
- potential for advancement
- broadly defined reimbursable areas
- widespread publicity
- opportunity for counseling/advisement
- equal benefits for hourly and salaried workers
- at least minimal arrangements with area educational institutions
- ease in applying for assistance
- sufficient staff to design and administer program
- integration into broader worker education initiatives

Companies and educational institutions each play an important role in encouraging greater utilization of tuition assistance plans. Ultimately, however, the decision to participate rests with the individual workers. They have been found to participate for these reasons: (1) personal development or general information, (2) job/career enhancement, (3) social/recreational purposes, and (4) political/community reasons. Most workers participate for the first two reasons (Charner, 1980).

Adults cite many reasons for not participating in educational activities. Generally these reasons are grouped into three categories: situational, social/psychological, and institutional. The extent to which an educational institution can minimize or eliminate these factors may have a significant effect on worker utilization of tuition assistance plans, particularly among less educated or older employees.

A survey of companies with negotiated tuition assistance plans revealed that unions

and companies differ in their perceptions of barriers to participation (Charner *et al.*, 1978). Union representatives indicated that lack of interest is an important factor, but also felt that situational and institutional barriers are very important. On the other hand, companies tended to minimize the importance of variables other than lack of interest. They particularly felt that the range of courses offered and management support are not factors which discouraged participation. This discrepancy in perceptions illustrates the importance of interaction between employers, educational institutions, and employees.

Another noteworthy finding of this survey was that 68.9 percent of all workers surveyed felt "likely or certain" to use tuition assistance plans if the problems they perceived were removed. This finding counters a common view that large numbers of workers have no interest in education.

Participation in tuition assistance plans might benefit both companies and individuals in the following ways (Charner *et al.*, 1978).

Benefits to companies might include:

- reduced turnover
- higher worker morale
- more highly educated work force
- benefits competitive with those of other companies
- smoothly functioning career advancement system
- work force able to cope with technological changes

Benefits to individuals might include:

- personal growth
- career advancement
- improved job performance
- increased job satisfaction
- increased general knowledge

Because very little research has been done to assess the benefits of utilizing tuition assistance plans, many of the potential benefits remain assumed rather than proven (Hilgert, 1967). In addition, current economic conditions have discouraged some companies from actively pursuing increased worker participation. However, companies which have well-utilized programs strongly believe in their value, in terms of both corporate cost-effectiveness and individual employee development (Wirtz, 1979).

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

There are a number of ways in which educational institutions can cooperate effectively with employers to involve more employees in educational participation. The logical first step is simply talking with employers about their views and approach to education and training for their employees. Working closely with employers will decrease the possibility that they might resent any institutional efforts to increase worker awareness of tuition assistance. The literature and resource persons suggest that educational institutions also might consider one or more of the following recommendations.

1. Contact the personnel or training director and ask which five courses he/she thinks are most needed in the company. The educational institution should let the company identify them, then offer them and assess the results. One company representative suggested that companies and educational institutions each must take some risks in this manner.
2. Offer programs at convenient times and locations. Perhaps an employer would be willing to make space available to offer selected courses to employees of that company and others within the nearby area.

3. Ask a company to appoint a liaison person who could channel information to employees.
4. Work with other educational providers in the area to coordinate efforts and publicize offerings jointly.
5. Identify institutional strengths and approach companies on that basis, offering to do what the individual educational institution does best.
6. Offer to provide on-site information, advising, counseling, and registration.
7. Publicize courses as extensively and effectively as possible, either through employers or directly to workers, particularly with the company's approval. Include a mention of tuition assistance possibilities in publicity.
8. Encourage prospective employed adult students to learn whether their company or union offers tuition assistance.
9. If possible, make special arrangements to bill an employer directly.
10. Assist students in receiving reimbursement checks quicker by offering to send their employers letters in advance of official grades indicating that courses were completed successfully.
11. If sufficient potential tuition assistance recipients with specific educational needs can be identified, a degree or certificate program might be developed for that particular population.

Some examples of specific ways in which Penn State's Continuing Education program planners have geared credit courses to the employed adult include the following.

- On-site credit programming is provided in some locations. For example, a certificate program in business management is offered at several on-site locations. A certificate program in special education is offered on-site for employees of an institute for handicapped adults, and credit coursework in electrical engineering is provided for a power company.
- In response to the desire of many diploma-school nurses to complete a baccalaureate degree, an extended degree program in nursing was implemented in two areas of the Commonwealth. Some of the coursework is held on-site in hospitals. The vast majority of students are employed by hospitals which have tuition assistance plans.
- Some Continuing Education staff members belong to local personnel administrators' and/or training directors' associations. These organizations provide excellent opportunities to make contacts with administrators responsible for employee training and development. Continuing Education staff members have found it easy to initiate discussions concerning tuition assistance once appropriate contacts have been established.

CONCLUSION

Tuition assistance benefits represent a vast potential, with millions of workers eligible to participate in negotiated or nonnegotiated educational benefit plans. Although this potential market initially might appear to be a real bonanza for postsecondary institutions, this would be an overly optimistic perception. The phenomenon of participation in adult education, and in particular tuition assistance programs, is complex. Barriers to participation, whether real or perceived, are great, and higher education institutions alone cannot hope to overcome them all. However, they can be instrumental in reducing barriers and increasing employer support through greater cooperation with employers and workers.

Business and industry repeatedly have voiced a need for ongoing training and education for their employees. Their own training efforts have increased substantially in recent years, partially to overcome what some view as higher education's failure to respond effectively. Tuition assistance offers a unique opportunity for educational institutions to strengthen relationships with employers and workers by providing quality education to meet career or personal development needs.

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AN ALTERNATIVE APPROACH FOR SELECTING ADULT
EDUCATION DOCTORAL DEGREE GRADUATE STUDENTS

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Abstract

It is the purpose of this paper to discuss an alternative approach of reviewing applications for adult education doctoral degree study. Should admission criteria for graduate study be founded upon characteristics which are reflective of an individual who will be a successful practitioner? This writer would suggest an affirmative answer to the above question.

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps one of the greatest challenges facing adult education doctoral degree programs is to prepare prospective practicing professionals who can bridge educational theory with educational practice. This blending of theory and practice requires that individuals who are engaged in doctoral study have those abilities which enable them to function effectively at both the theoretical and practical level. Decisions on admission are probably the most difficult and the most important decisions faced by those responsible for administering doctoral programs. Recently, the criteria used for making decisions on graduate admission have been influenced by several judicial opinions which require that criteria be developed which are truly reflective of those needed to function effectively as a professional practitioner. The genesis of these opinions was contained in the decision by the United States Supreme Court in what has become known as the Bakke case.

The 1978 Supreme Court decision in the case of Regents of the University of California (Davis) v. Allan Bakke demonstrated that the judicial branch of government is willing to examine and direct higher education's process of reviewing an individual's application for graduate study. Additionally, future judicial review of this process is more than likely and, indeed, the Supreme Court decision which may stand the test of time could well be a future case in which a discipline within higher education is challenged to relate directly the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study with the criteria generally accepted as indicators of a successful practicing professional.

It is clear that there are substantive differences of opinion as to the real implications of the Bakke decision for college and university admission programs. To assist higher education institutions to consider the impact of the Supreme Court decision, regional seminars for educators were held throughout the country. At the Omaha, Nebraska Conference, several speakers suggested that the message of the Bakke decision is directed to educational leaders and policy makers calling for them to be creative and innovative in developing new methods of reviewing minority applications for admission. Some of the speakers noted that the neutral position of the Supreme Court in this decision is the real strength of the Bakke decision because it provides educational leaders with the time and challenge to explore and review current admission review procedures--that is, to explore new methods of reviewing minority applications for admission into the programs of higher education. This point of view is a reflection of the philosophy that the entire social structure will benefit from minority representation in higher educational opportunities, as stated by one of the conference speakers:

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Each institution is invited to examine its own education mission and to determine the educational impact of bringing--or failing to bring--minority groups into full partnership in that undertaking. But recall that no institution is required to do anything. The question now is whether institutions of higher education will indeed respond to the invitation--it is no more than that--to ensure the inclusion of minorities in the mainstream of higher education.

It is this interpretation of the Bakke decision which provided a sense of direction for this paper. Have admission committees responded to the Bakke decision in a creative way which provides opportunities for minority group members to engage in graduate study? This was, in essence, the primary focus of a recently conducted study and it is a crucial issue because in the future there may be a Supreme Court case which challenges a specific discipline within higher education to relate the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study with the criteria generally accepted as indicators of a successful practicing professional. To preclude this from occurring, admission committees in institutions of higher education need to examine critically the present criteria used for selecting graduate students.

More specifically, a direct application of this challenge in the area of adult education immediately surfaces in the need to develop criteria for admissions which are drawn from an analysis of basic characteristics needed by an individual who will be a successful adult education professional. These criteria can then be related to those which are used by colleges and universities in assessing the characteristics which they feel are necessary for a student to be successful in graduate study.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the characteristics of an individual who will be a successful practicing professional as perceived by practitioners in the area of adult education and the characteristics of an individual who will be a successful adult education doctoral degree graduate student as perceived by those individuals who are currently involved in directing graduate programs in higher education.

METHODOLOGY

This study utilized three major populations. The first survey audience was a national population of individuals involved in directing doctoral degree programs in adult education. The second survey population was the entire membership of the Missouri Valley Adult Education Association, and the third population was the Region Five Deans and Directors of the National University Continuing Education Association. A questionnaire was utilized as the data-collection tool for this survey and the same instrument was distributed to all subjects in the sample in an effort to obtain standardized information.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the following five points should be considered as the foundation for the recommendations of this research project:

1. Adult education doctoral degree programs should prepare prospective practicing professionals who can bridge educational theory with educational practice.
2. The decisions on admission are some of the most difficult and most important decisions which are faced by those responsible for administering doctoral programs.

3. The judicial branch of government is willing to examine and direct higher education's process of reviewing an individual's application for graduate study.

4. Sometime in the future, a discipline within higher education may be challenged to directly relate the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study with the criteria generally accepted as indicators of a successful practicing professional.

5. The entire social structure will benefit from minority representation in higher educational opportunities.

If the reader is in harmony with each of these points, then it should be recognized that there is a need to accept the challenge of the Bakke decision as expressed by McKay. Succinctly stated, McKay suggested that each institution of higher education should examine its mission and determine the educational impact of bringing or failing to bring minorities into the mainstream of higher education. If the intent of the institution is to ensure the inclusion of minorities, the challenge is to explore new methods of reviewing minority applications for admission into the programs of higher education.

At this point it should be emphasized that Ingham and Quazilbash conducted a survey of graduate programs in adult education in 1968. This study, which included 26 institutions in the United States and Canada, found that four of the seven primary admission criteria were: (1) graduate record exam score, (2) academic grade point average, (3) letters of recommendation, and (4) the Miller's Analogies test score.

These four admission criteria correspond to four variables which were considered in this study. Table 1 presents an overview of the findings of this study.

TABLE 1
Reaction to Standard Admission Criteria

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
15 GRE score	205	2.604	1.077
16 GPA	205	2.995	1.040
17 Letters	206	3.383	1.088
18 Miller's Analogies test score	194	2.613	1.082

The reaction to these standard admission criteria indicate a very small degree of importance when considering the characteristics of either a successful adult education doctoral degree graduate student or a successful practicing professional adult educator. Furthermore, Stadtman recently published this noteworthy fact:

Members of ethnic groups have not greatly increased their share of graduate enrollments between 1969 and 1976. This is a little surprising because there were affirmative action programs in

existence at 40 percent of the nation's colleges and universities by 1975, and such programs have been adopted at another 50 percent of them since that time (Carnegie Council Surveys, 1978).

Therefore, it is the combination of the power of McKay's suggestion, the low rating of standard admission criteria and the Carnegie Council's finding which leads this researcher to suggest that there is a need for a composite set of characteristics which could serve as the basis for designing an approach that would assist adult education doctoral degree admission committees to relate the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study to the criteria generally accepted as characteristics of a successful practicing professional.

The decisions of an admission committee are critical to the development of the field of adult education. The potential significance of this research problem area is great if adult education doctoral degree admission committees are challenged to directly relate the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study with the criteria generally accepted as indicators of a successful practicing professional. This study should establish a model which will help adult education doctoral degree admission committees respond to the challenge.

Finally, a model is needed which will ensure the inclusion of minorities into the mainstream of higher education. Such a model should be founded upon a set of criteria which is reflective of the skills necessary to function at both the theoretical and practical levels. If one is in harmony with the philosophy that the entire social structure will benefit from minority representation in higher education opportunities, one can appreciate the challenge of developing a model which will provide this minority representation in adult education.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It is recommended that the members of an adult education doctoral degree admission committee review their mission statement to determine their commitment to ensure minority representation in adult education doctoral degree programs.

Following the mission statement review, if it is decided that the overall development of the field and the entire social structure will be enhanced by minority representation, the members of admission committee should consider the challenge of exploring new methods of reviewing minority applications.

Finally, it is recommended that this new approach of reviewing applications be based on the nine characteristics which emerged as the unanimous choice of the three survey groups participating in the study.

More specifically, these nine characteristics and their respective four broad areas of proficiency were:

Personal Qualities

- * A sense of direction, responsiveness, persuasiveness and follow-through.
- * Willingness to go beyond routine activities and reactions to external pressures (to be innovative).

Understanding of Adults as Learners

- * Attention to the dynamics of learning.
- * Attention to reasons for participation in educational activities.

- * Understanding of both formal and informal learning activities.

Understanding of the Field

- * Ability to identify educational resources.
- * Ability to utilize educational resources.

Managerial Competencies

- * To be able to determine educational needs and goals of a given clientele.
- * Select and use the methods of training best suited to adult learners and programs.

Perhaps a major strength of these research findings is the fact that the dichotomy between the practitioner and the scholar is not an issue because of the unanimous selection of these nine characteristics by the three survey groups.

Furthermore, it is significant to note that these nine characteristics and their respective four broad areas of proficiency appear to be in harmony with the works of Houle, Grabowski and Knox.

Undoubtedly, there will be a need for further exploration of methods to determine the degree of presence of each of these nine characteristics if an adult education doctoral degree admission committee utilizes this composite set of characteristics as the basis for designing an approach to relate the criteria utilized for admission to graduate study to the criteria generally accepted as characteristics of a successful practicing professional.

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ADULT EDUCATION R & D INVESTMENTS
ARE THEY PAYING OFF?

James Thompson Parker¹

Abstract

This paper reports the results of a four year trends analysis of state sponsored projects funded under the Adult Education Act. The analysis indicates several reasons why these projects have had limited state-wide or national impact, and identifies a few well planned investments that are now enabling some states to improve their Adult Education policies and programs.

The current Adult Education Act (as amended in 1978) provides federal funds to state departments of education to "expand educational opportunities for adults and to encourage the establishment of programs of adult education that will-- (1) enable all adults to acquire basic skills necessary to function in society, (2) enable adults who so desire to continue their education to at least the level of completion of secondary school, and (3) make available to adults the means to secure training that will enable them to become more employable, productive, and responsible citizens."

As a condition of accepting federal funds, states must agree to carry out a number of provisions, including the use of not less than 10% of their federal funds for: "(1) special projects which will be carried out in furtherance of the purposes of this title (above), and which--(A) involve the use of innovative methods, including methods educating persons of limited English-speaking ability, systems, materials, or programs which may have national significance or be of special value in promoting effective programs under this title, or (B) involve programs of adult education, including education for persons of limited English-speaking ability, which are part of community school programs, carried out in cooperation with other federal, federally assisted, State or local programs which have unusual promise in promoting a comprehensive or coordinated approach to the problems of persons with educational deficiencies; and (2) training persons engaged, or preparing to engage, as personnel in programs designed to carry out the purposes of this title."

This paper will deal primarily with special project investments, and in particular the attempts by states to fulfill the law regarding "innovative methods", "national significance", "promoting effective programs", and "promoting a comprehensive or coordinated approach."

WHO GETS FUNDED

Since 1979 States have typically turned to local education agencies (LEA's) to conduct their projects (Catalogs of Adult Education Projects, FY '80-'83). During those four years, LEA's have received funding for 433 (40%) of the 1077 projects we have abstracted. Major areas of LEA involvement have been: Life Skills; Alternative Diploma Programs, Community Linkage; ESL; Technology; and ABE Projects. Only in Staff Development and Evaluation projects have institutions of higher education dominated. Overall, universities and colleges have captured 333 (31%) of projects funded. Community-based organizations (7%) and vocational centers (4%) have played small roles in these development efforts. Other organizations' roles have been selective - correctional institutions

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are typically funded for corrections education, state hospitals for learning disabled projects, etc. Table I is a breakdown of institutions for each of the four years.

TABLE I Percentage of Fundings by Institutional Type, FY '80-'83

	FY'80	'80	'82	'83
LEA'S	41%	37%	44%	39%
Higher Education	32%	34%	30%	28%
Community-Based	9%	4%	9%	4%
Vocational	4%	6%	2%	3%
Other	14%	19%	15%	26%
	100%	100%	100%	100%

As indicated above, funding patterns, by institutions, have been relatively stable. An increase in funding to "Other Organizations" reflects a current upswing in corrections education and increased investment in dissemination activities conducted by these organizations.

PRIORITIES FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

Table 2 represents major investment areas for the four year period of study. The total amount of funding for the 1077 projects in this study is approximately \$27 million.

TABLE 2 Fundings by Areas, FY '80 - '83

SUBJECT	YEAR	PROJECTS	\$(1,000.)
Community Linkage	FY'80	21	425
	'81	16	430
	'82	13	144
	'83	6	109
Employability	FY'80	24	401
	'81	14	190
	'82	10	237
	'83	11	212
ESL	FY'80	26	778
	'81	26	580
	'82	21	531
	'83	13	194
General ABE	FY'80	36	660*
	'81	17	303
	'82	39	726
	'83	22	280
H.S. Diploma	FY'80	13	646
	'81	17	635
	'82	17	406
	'83	9	198
Learning Disabled	FY'80	17	240*
	'81	24	775
	'82	22	588
	'83	21	328*

Life Skills	FY'80	34	1,050
	'81	21	443
	'82	19	527
	'83	15	380
Staff Development	FY'80	68	2,319
	'81	59	1,542
	'82	30	887
	'83	25	1,125
Technology**	FY'83	21	586*

*Approximate Amount **In FY'82, included under "ABE"

Also funded during this period were Corrections Education, Dissemination, Evaluation, and Tutoring projects, which have shown an upward trend. Support for Older Adult programs has decreased. GED projects have remained stable, in the \$60 - 90,000. total funding range. And Administration, Assessment, Counseling, and Recruitment have received mixed support over the four year period.

It is interesting to compare the above trends with the stated purposes of Section 310 regarding special project investments:

o "Coordinated approaches" are clearly the domain of Community Linkage projects and, usually, Recruitment and Tutoring projects. Taken together, these projects have made up about 15% of the project number and 11% of funding.

o "Promoting effective programs", if taken in a narrow sense, means Dissemination. However, Staff Development may, in part, be promotional in nature. Also, some special projects have been adoptions of "effective programs", with little original development intended. Examples are competency-based adult diploma programs adopting the New York External Diploma model. Keeping these points in mind, projects classified as Dissemination represent 7% of projects and 10% of funding.

o "Innovative methods" begs the question: In relation to what? To a lesser extent, perhaps, "national significance" depends on one's perspective. I will attempt to deal with these points by offering a four type construct:

Type N indicates that a project appears to have national impact potential, and contributes to the state of the art - beyond the state level.

Type S indicates a project that may have statewide impact potential, is innovative in its home state, and/or is implementing a national or state model.

Type L indicates a project that promises development at a local/regional level, but is not necessarily innovative from a state or national perspective.

Type Z for zzzz, or not at all innovative. Essentially a local program that appears to be inappropriately funded with Section 310 appropriations.

Applying this typology, a review of current special project abstracts suggests that, of 210 projects, approximately:

- o 37% are Type L,
- o 56% are Type S,
- o 4% are Type Z,
- o and 3% are Type N projects.

LEVELS OF INVESTMENT

One indicator of a project's potential for broad impact is the level of support received. Funding for many projects is low. Over the four year period project investment shows a mean of \$25,000. But 17% of projects have received less than \$5,000. And among current projects, over 40% are funded at \$10,000 or less.

Time investment also appears to be minimal. Projects typically have only one year to accomplish their missions. A scan of Project Titles in the FY'82 and FY'83 Catalogs shows that of the special projects funded by states reporting both years, no more than 25% of current projects were also funded in FY'82. Though this data is incomplete (it includes 34 states, a few of which did not submit abstracts for all their projects), it certainly indicates that a large majority of projects are single year efforts.

PRODUCTIVITY

Many special projects have, as a major objective, the development of some instructional, administrative, or informational product. The past three catalogs have included a products listing.

- o In FY'81 over 150 products were developed
- o In FY'82 projects developed some 180 products
- o Currently, with less federal support available, 120 products are being developed

Though these numbers may be impressive, the question of level of investment must again be raised. Even an "average" project with a budget of \$25,000 may have difficulty producing a new curriculum or major R & D report worth disseminating statewide or nationally. In addition, many projects are not well evaluated, if they are evaluated at all. And, though there has been some attempt, few criteria are consistent across state lines.

INVESTING FOR GREATER IMPACT

While the data indicate that most current investments have some potential for statewide impact, many will never achieve a high level of influence on state policy or practice because of certain characteristics:

- (1) a project may be conducted by the wrong organization, i.e. a school district that lacks the facilities and expertise to meet project objectives.
- (2) a project may be underfunded, and expected to accomplish in one year what would more appropriately be accomplished in two or three years.
- (3) a project may not include (or, more likely, may not be allowed to include) appropriate research, field test, materials production, dissemination, or diffusion/adoption components. Any one of these components, if missing, underfunded, or poorly facilitated, can guarantee that the project's influence will be limited.

Promising Type S Investments

A few States have in recent years invested Section 310 Funds in the development and maintenance of resource centers. Some centers have statewide responsibility, some service regional (multi-county) areas. An example is Indiana. After considerable

investment in curriculum development and teacher training in general and specialized areas of program improvement, this state made a policy decision to consolidate its efforts to help assure that innovation "takes hold" at local levels. This is done via materials dissemination, networking, and a variety of staff development activities.

Many states receive relatively small amounts of federal funds for research, development, and staff training. Sound investments are, of course, most critical for them. Yet too often small (\$5-10,000.) projects are expected to "invent the wheel" in the form of a "new" curriculum, etc. Some states, large and small, are now funding projects whose purpose is to adopt, at local levels, practices and products that have proven usefulness. Now that the National Diffusion Network (NDN) has certified a number of adult education programs, states should seriously consider "mini-grant" adoptions of these programs and others that have been thoroughly assessed and found worthy.

Perspectives on Types Z, L, and N

o This analysis indicates that few Type Z projects are currently funded. However, state departments of education should continue to hold the line on pressures from local institutions for funding regular programs with special project funds.

o While Type L projects are, at least marginally, within the scope of purposes for Section 310, states should continually assess the usefulness of these efforts and should not unintentionally fund them.

Type N projects are rare. They impact nationally. Four NDN programs started as 310 projects. One current Type N project is the continuation of the parent New York External Diploma program at Syracuse. Another alternative diploma project is a continuing effort in Washington, D.C. that has had national visibility and impact re: occupational competencies research. Another pair are the CASAS and San Francisco State University projects that are part of California's massive effort to reform adult basic education through competency-based approaches. That effort is already impacting many Western states and some back East, too. Western states have also continued coordination and staff development efforts through a small grant to the Nomos Institute. an old suggestion that states should consolidate resources to meet common R & D needs is worthy of reconsideration by all state adult education officials. Finally, Texas has invested in the development of a process model for enhancing job productivity through basic skills instruction. This is certainly a national priority. Are state adult education investments paying off? Yes, but the returns could be much greater.

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No official support or endorsement by the U.S. Department of Education is intended nor should be inferred.

WORK AND PARTICIPATION IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING:
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF JOB AND TRAINING PROGRAMS

Jacqueline Saindon¹

Abstract

The current study examined the relationship between specific working conditions and participation in vocational training. The Quality of American Life, 1978 served as the data base for this study. The data was originally collected by the Institute of Social Research, University of Michigan. A discriminant analysis procedure was used to distinguish between two groups 1) participants in vocational training and 2) non-participants, on the basis of specific social background, occupational factors, and working conditions. Jobs that were intrinsically interesting, especially if they provided the opportunity to develop abilities on the job, were associated with participation in vocational training. Operators and others who worked in routinized jobs and who expressed satisfaction with those jobs were associated with non-participation in vocational training. It was concluded that mental involvement and the desire for additional skills training are closely related. The findings of this study support the view that work and education are closely related and suggest that job and training programs should integrate mentally involving work with training opportunities.

INTRODUCTION

Unemployment has become the major domestic problem facing the United States. As unemployment rises past 10%, not only are those without jobs affected, but the insecurity of all employed workers mounts. Most affected by unemployment are young people, many of whom have never held a job and have few skills to offer prospective employers. Many remedies have been proposed to ameliorate the effects of unemployment: jobs and training programs are the most frequently discussed among political leaders in recent months. Various programs have been proposed that combine job creation with training opportunities; but many such job and training programs have been reported as failures. One reason for the lack of success of these programs is the failure to attract and retain young people, especially those most in need of training. The reasons for these failures should be better known so that future job and training programs will succeed.

The purpose of the current research was to examine the relationship between working conditions and participation in vocational training. It was hypothesized that specific working conditions would promote participation in vocational training while others would inhibit participation. It was also hypothesized that this relationship between working conditions and participation would be independent of the effects of age, sex, occupational status, income, and educational level. By learning more about the relationship between work and education, a more effective job and training program can be developed.

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THE DATA

The Quality of American Life, 1978, conducted by the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan serves as the data base for this study (Campbell and Converse, 1980). Respondents were interviewed using a nationwide probability sample of individuals 18 years or older. The original study consisted of interviews with 3,692 individuals living in coterminous United States. Families living on military reservations were excluded from the sample. For the current study, responses from 256 individuals were used. The reason for the reduction in number of individuals in the sample was to limit the study to individuals between the ages of 21 and 65 and who worked at least 35 hours a week. Additionally, to facilitate the discriminant analysis equal size groups were selected. There were 128 individuals between the ages of 21 and 65 who fit the above description and participated in vocational training. The remaining 128 were selected from the pool of non-participants by employing a sampling procedure in the SPSS program (Hull and Nie, 1981).

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

A discriminant analysis procedure was employed in this study to distinguish between 1) participants in vocational training and 2) non-participants on the basis of specific variables. The object of discriminant analysis is to combine variables which distinguish between two groups forcing them to be as statistically distinct as possible.

The analysis was conducted in two stages. In the first stage all the background conditions and working conditions that were postulated to affect participation were included. These included the following five background characteristics: age, educational attainment, socio-economic status, income and sex. Perceptions of thirteen working conditions were included; "travel to work is convenient", "job is interesting", "pay is good", "chance to make friends on the job", "surroundings are pleasant", "job is secure", "opportunity to develop abilities on the job", "chance to use skills on the job", "opportunity for promotion", "enough time for the job", "satisfied with the job", "would work if rich", "would keep same job if rich". Three occupational classifications were entered, operators, service workers and farm workers, since these were indicated in the literature as influencing mental attitudes. Government employment was also entered because of the number of individuals employed by the government and the amount of funds invested in employee training programs by state, local and the federal government.

In the second stage of the analysis those variables scoring higher than .1 on the standardized canonical discriminant function analysis were included. The variables included in the final analysis are reported in Table 1. The final analysis discriminated between participants in vocational training and non-participants on the following characteristics. Variables with high negative scores on the standardized discriminant function coefficients describe participants in vocational training while high positive score describe non-participants. Participants scored high on the following variables "opportunity to develop abilities on the job", "would work if rich", "job is interesting", "job is secure". Participants were also more likely to be male and work for the government. This group of variables is interpreted as representing intrinsically interesting work.

Non-participants were likely to be operators and scored high in perceived satisfaction with the job. Also, non-participants had "enough time for their jobs", "had a chance to make friends on the job", and had high socio-economic status and high family incomes. The last three variables represent extrinsic rewards, meaning the benefits that occur to the individual by virtue of employment, but are not intrinsically related to the job itself. This second group of variables is interpreted as representing routinized and extrinsically satisfying work.

TABLE 1

Final Discriminant Analysis

Function	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlation	Wilk's Lambda	Chi- Square	D.F.	Significance
1	0.24332	0.44328	.8043	53.902	13	0.0000

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

family income	0.41367
socio-economic status (NORC)	0.15449
sex	-0.21061
job is interesting	-0.26380
chance to make friends	0.13992
job is secure	-0.17780
opportunity to develop abilities	-0.41885
enough time for the job	0.16902
satisfied with the job	0.45361
would work if rich	-0.36604
would keep same job if rich	-0.16594
operator	0.56296
government worker	-0.11996

The canonical correlation of .4424 which is significant at the $p > .0001$ level of confidence shows that the variables were able to separate the groups. The classification results indicates that the variables accounted for much, but not all of the variability in the groups. The total percent correctly classified was 70%. Classification of participants in vocational training was 75.8% compared to a correct classification of 65.6% of non-participants. Participants in vocational training were more homogeneous than were non-participants, meaning that the variables associated with Group 1, participants, better described that group, than did the variables associated with Group 2, non-participants.

CONCLUSIONS

Studies have established a relationship between absence of mental involvement in the job and feelings of alienation (Blauner, 1964), lack of mental health (Herzberg, 1959 and Kornhauser, 1965) and intellectual inflexibility (Kohn, 1980). The findings of the current study suggest that lack of mentally involving work is associated with non-participation in vocational training. What are the implications of these findings for the development of training and job programs? One implication is that work and education are closely related. Jobs that demand mental activity result in participation in educational activities for further development of those abilities. It is also true that boring and routinized jobs are associated with non-participation in vocational training. Job and training programs should integrate mentally demanding jobs with training opportunities. Make work programs may be self-defeating in that they do not spur an interest in further development of skills.

Policy planners should be made aware of the relationship between work and education. Failure of past programs have made many wary of implementing job and training programs. Maybe the past failures occurred because work and training were not sufficiently integrated. Job and training programs must be implemented for the costs of not doing so are too high. But why repeat failures when research indicates possible reasons for the lack of success. The integration of work that is intrinsically interesting with training opportunities would significantly improve the quality and the long term effects of these programs.

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USING THE PRICE ELASTICITY OF DEMAND
IN EDUCATIONAL DECISION MAKING

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Abstract

The Navy has recently conducted a study of users of voluntary education programs. The demographic characteristics of the clients were investigated using an economic model called the price elasticity of demand. The elasticity of demand provides a measure of the responsiveness of the quantity of demand to changes in the price of the product. This study demonstrated that demographic variables influence the decision to participate in education. There was not a linear relationship between changes in price and numbers of participants and different sub-groups of the user population reacted differently to proposed changes in the price structure of the educational programs.

INTRODUCTION

Adult educators are increasingly faced with budget cuts and with the problems associated with the program changes that must accompany these cuts. It is important for educational planners to be able to predict the impact of various funding alternatives. One way to do this is to gain information about the price elasticity of demand for their programs. Navy Campus, the administrative unit of the Navy's off-duty voluntary education programs, was faced with this kind of situation. There was a shortage of tuition assistance funds and decision makers needed to choose a funding arrangement that would make the most efficient use of the money available.

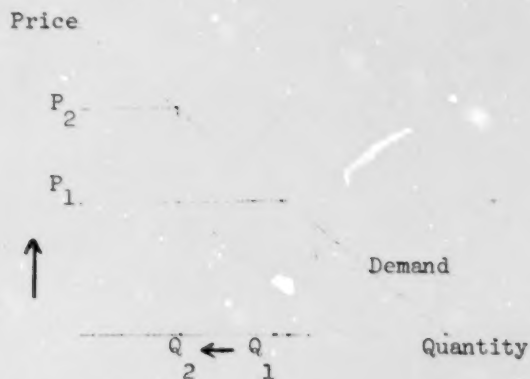
As the funding for educational pursuits becomes an issue at all levels, it appears to be an appropriate time for a discussion of the price elasticity of demand for education. Lest one be immediately turned away from the topic, due to the economic jargon, this discussion will be targeted at a simplified approach modifying this economic concept to educationally oriented audiences.

¹

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The economic concept of price elasticity of demand is represented in the following diagram:



P - Price or cost for a good or service

Q - Quantity or participation

D - Demand for a good or service

Demand is defined as the number of units of a particular good or service that consumers are willing to purchase during a specified period of time under a given set of circumstances.

As displayed on the diagram, as the price increases from P_1 to P_2 , the quantity decreases from Q_1 to Q_2 . This routinely occurs in a competitive environment for a good or service that is neither elastic nor totally inelastic.

Elasticity is the percentage change in quantity demanded, resulting from a one percent change in the value of one of the demand determining variables (Pappas and Brigham 1979). "The most widely used elasticity measure is the price elasticity of demand, which provides a measure of the responsiveness of the quantity demanded to changes in the price of the product, holding constant the values of all other variables in the demand function" (Pappas and Brigham, 1979, p. 133).

NAVY EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

The various military services currently offer reimbursement to uniform service personnel for off-duty education. The program that provides funding assistance is called tuition assistance and each military service issues implementation guidance on the congressionally sponsored Tuition Assistance program. Public Law Section 722 of the Defense Appropriations Act states:

"No appropriation contained in this Act shall be available for the payment of more than 75 percentum of charges of educational institutions for tuition or expenses of off-duty training of military personnel (except with regard to such charges of educational institutions (a) for enlisted personnel in the pay grade E-5 or higher with less than 14 years service, for which payment of 90 per centum may be more, or (b) for military personnel in off-duty high school completion programs for which payment of 100 per centum may be made), nor for the payment of any part of tuition or expenses for such training for commissioned personnel who do not agree to remain on active duty for two years after completion of such training."

The different rate of compensation allowed for mid-level enlisted personnel E-5 or higher with less than 14 years of service began 1 January 1981. The impact of this was immediately felt although the previous budget remained unchanged.

The language used for the Tuition Assistance program is permissive in the level of funding and the individual services were tasked with implementing the program. A funding shortfall was predicted for the Navy. Previous to a decision about how to remain within the tuition assistance budget while minimizing adverse impact on Navy personnel, a study was conducted to determine the demand for education at various proposed funding levels. The results proved to be interesting for the researchers and perhaps the concept and methodology has appeal and applicability to other settings.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY

A study was undertaken to determine the demographic characteristics of current tuition assistance users and the price elasticity of demand for Navy Campus programs. Questionnaires were distributed to a stratified, random sample of 250 current tuition assistance users in the San Diego area. This site was chosen due to the high concentration of Navy personnel in a variety of Navy occupations and settings. In addition to the questionnaires, 35 structured interviews were held with officer and enlisted personnel. The aim of the study was to determine the price elasticity of demand for tuition assistance programs. Simply put, the Navy wanted to find out at various levels of compensation (price) who the users of tuition assistance (quantity) would be.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The research indicated that 68 percent of tuition assistance users were from mid-level enlisted pay grades and that 92 percent of the clients were male. The typical Navy Campus user had 14 years of formal education. Responses to questions about the price elasticity of demand for off-duty education programs showed that the demand had considerable elasticity and that cuts in tuition assistance would impact differently on various groups of users. Sixty-one percent of the respondents indicated that they would take an off-duty course if tuition assistance paid 75 percent of the cost. This dropped to 33 percent at 60 percent funding and 27 percent at 50 percent funding. When the responses were analyzed according to rank, it was found that the E-4 - E-6 group was less willing to continue taking courses under reduced funding than officers and that married men were less likely to continue taking courses if funding were curtailed than single men. Although the number of females involved in tuition assistance was small, they demonstrated a high degree of commitment to remaining in the program even if funding were reduced.

IMPLICATIONS

This information suggested that a cut in tuition assistance to the 50 percent funding level would substantially lower the number of participants in off-duty education courses. It also indicated that the service members who would be most likely to drop out of programs were the mid-grade enlisted men, members of the career and career potential group. The findings of this study suggest that planners cannot assume a linear relationship between the cost of their programs and the demand for these programs. Apparently the demand for some programs is price elastic and has a different degree of elasticity for various sub-groups of clients. Advance knowledge about this price elasticity appears to be an important tool for educational planners.

The findings of this study suggest that decision makers can benefit from obtaining a realistic demographic profile of the users of their product. They need to know who their clients are and how the various sub-groups will react to the alternatives being considered. Assumptions about the impact of funding alternatives may be more valid if they are tempered by information gained from the user community. The use of the economic principle of price elasticity of demand provides a projection of impact related to the price variable.

It is interesting that the pricing structure for education and for other services, especially in the non-profit making area, relies on the cost of delivery. Little attention is paid to the consumer. The assumption is usually made that all consumers will be affected equally, either positively with a reduction in price or negatively with an increase in price. Although this strategy is understandable, the current study did not support

that assumption. It appears that applying the economic principle of the price elasticity of demand to educational decision making can lead to more meaningful dialog with financial wizards on the pricing of education.

IMPACT

The real world sometimes does not accommodate the findings from research. The decision made by the Navy was to reduce the level of funding to 50 percent across the board despite the findings of this study. It was concluded that a little support to the mass of Navy participants was preferable to selective targeting of individuals. Despite this rational but questionable decision, the methodology and potential of the alternative approach using the price elasticity of demand in educational decision making has merit, and warrants future study.

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CABLE TV AS TEACHER: SIX CASE STUDIES

Robert F. Carbone¹

Abstract

Construction of extensive and sophisticated cable television systems across the nation provides adult educators a new and promising way of delivering learning opportunities. In the six communities -- large, small, rural, urban -- described in this paper the potential of cable television as an important new technology for distance education is amply demonstrated. These case studies also illustrate mechanisms that promote a high degree of cooperation among providers of educational opportunities for adult learners. It is suggested that adult educators must not ignore either the technology or the potential for reducing wasteful and needless competition.

INTRODUCTION

Cable television has received little attention as a delivery system for adult education even though several thousand cable systems currently operate in this country. Many of these systems, to be sure, are limited to a few channels and were built to bring commercial television to small communities that could not get good reception.

With the advent of more modern and comprehensive systems in major population centers, however, the potential of cable television for enhancing learning opportunities for adults increased dramatically. These systems, many with 100 or more channels and interactive capabilities, provide for adult educators both a challenge and a tool for reaching populations of adult learners unequalled in the history of adult education.

The descriptive research reported here, conducted under a contract with the Corporation For Public Broadcasting, sought information about successful uses of cable channels for delivery of adult learning opportunities. Cable systems that appeared to be likely subjects for further investigation were identified and six were somewhat arbitrarily selected. They represent diverse geographic areas of the nation were located in rural, suburban, and urban communities, and their sponsorships range from a local not-for-profit corporation to a complex consortium of schools and colleges to a single major state university system. Each system is described briefly and some implications for adult educators are suggested.

THE CASE STUDIES

Reston, Virginia

Created just under 20 years ago, Reston is a community of approximately 35,000 people, built on 7,000 acres of rolling woods and fields. A so-called "planned community", it has commercial sections separated from comfortable residential areas. One-third of the land is "common ground", mainly green space that includes four man-made lakes and 47 miles of trails for bicycles and walking. Many Reston residents commute to jobs in Washington, D. C.

Its original cable system, built in the late 1960's, was a dual-trunk system with one-way capability and 24 channels. A third trunk, added later, provided two-way capabilities from a number of public locations and schools in the community. Owned by Warner Amex Cable,

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the system has a potential capacity of 60 channels. Currently 28 channels are utilized to deliver commercial stations from Washington and Baltimore, three PBS stations, and a variety of sports, entertainment, religious, and children's programming. Channel 8 of the system is dedicated to community programming. Approximately 9,000 residents subscribe to the system.

Programming on Channel 8 has a strong informational and education orientation directed to Reston's highly educated, somewhat affluent, and community-minded citizens. While there is a conscious effort to avoid courses or classroom broadcasts, much of Channel 8's programming is clearly designed to enrich and educate viewers. From six to eight hours of original production each week, with playbacks, generates about 25 hours of Channel 8 fare each week. A typical week might include programs on health, local history, art, a town meeting, interviews with local personalities, local news, growing things and ecology, mental health and counseling, buying and selling real estate, religious perspectives, and community events.

The cable company supports this programming by providing office space, a studio with three color cameras, and a versatile mobile unit which doubles as the master control room. Technical work is done by a manager and two salaried production people. Everything else is handled by volunteer producers and interns from area colleges. Programs produced have won six awards from the National Cable Television Association.

Kentuckiana Metroversity Cable Project

Covering the greater Louisville area, including adjacent counties of Southern Indiana, this project is one facet of a consortium of public and private colleges plus two theology schools in two states. Kentuckiana Metroversity is the cooperative venture of Bellarmine College, Indiana University Southeast, Louisville Presbyterian Theological Seminary, Southern Baptist Theological Seminary, Spalding College, and the University of Louisville. It facilitates cross-registrations, joint library use, as well as adult education opportunities.

The need for adult education in the area is great. Less than half the children who enter first grade earn a high school diploma and college attendance rates are low. To help meet this need, Metroversity offers three types of educational programs -- college courses, continuing education, and community service programs.

Dedicated channels provided by CPI of Louisville, an affiliate of Times Mirror Cable and by Storer Broadcasting, which serves the suburban areas, are used to transmit programs. Similar arrangements with two other cable companies in the Southern Indiana counties are in Metroversity's future plans. CPI and Storer serve about 93,000 subscribers. In addition to providing production time and training for Metroversity faculty and staff, the companies have contracted to provide offerings of the Appalachian Community Service Network (ACSN).

Undergraduate courses, primarily distributed by the Kentucky Council on Higher Education's telecommunications unit, can be taken for credit by students matriculated in any of the consortium's institutions. The courses are received in Louisville on open air transmission from the Kentucky Educational Television network, taped, and fed into the cable system. In 1980-81, just over 3,000 hours of KET credit courses were broadcast, in addition to nearly 4,400 hours of ACSN offerings. Recently some graduate courses have been added.

Continuing education offerings thus far have been limited to noncredit offerings in religion from the Southern Baptist Seminary and refresher courses for nurses produced by the University of Louisville. Community service offerings include topical discussion programs, a series on arts for handicapped youth, programs on local government consolidation and fiscal matters, and reports on activities on the several consortium campuses. In 1980-81, about 2,600 hours of noncredit offerings and 1,700 hours of community service programming were delivered under Metroversity sponsorship.

The practice of selecting a faculty member from a Metroversity institution to do "wrap-around" presentations before and after televised course sessions helped allay initial fears about course quality and competition with on-campus offerings.

Reading, Pennsylvania

Cable television has operated for over 20 years in Reading, a city of 90,000 that has a large senior citizen population. It was the site of a mid-1970's experiment by New York University researchers on the use of interactive cable television with senior citizens. Out of that project evolved Berks Community Television (BCTV), a non-profit group that produces adult education programming carried by Berks TV Cable, the local cable system operator.

Reading's original cable system, now owned by American Television and Communications Corporation, was expanded to outlying areas and a new 12 channel trunk was added. The old cable became an "upstream line" making it an interactive system now serving about 4,700 subscribers that can originate a signal from more than 75 locations in the county. Time for adult programming is provided on two partially commercial channels and on the channel dedicated to school broadcasting.

BCTV currently produces 15 hours of live programming each week with a staff of seven paid and 13 volunteer producers and technicians. Its funds come from local government, individuals, and local businesses. Berks Cable provides equipment and transmission support. Any local organization can initiate programs and local professional societies, health organizations, farm groups, and cultural groups have done so. A typical week's programming would include a discussion of the old days on the Reading Railroad, interviews with county commissioners, consumer tips, an agency on aging hearing, a discussion on art, health and nutrition discussion, and a report on current exhibits at the local museum. Another feature of BCTV programming are singalongs and discussions involving local high school students and residents of senior citizen's homes in the city, the latter hosted by an ex-mayor, age 81.

Pennsylvania's Statewide Network

This nation's most extensive effort to use cable television for adult education is in Pennsylvania. Thirty local cable systems -- just 10% of all cable systems operating in the state -- have joined with Pennsylvania State University to form PENNARAMA. This state-wide cable network, when completed in 1983, will be capable of reaching an estimated 1.2 million households. That number will grow to nearly three million as other cable systems connect.

Described as "one of the most ambitious experiments in the marriage of cable and higher education", it exemplifies the advantages of cooperation between private enterprise and the state's land-grant university. It grew out of an experiment at a Penn State branch campus in which tapes produced by the university's public television station were broadcast to Scranton area cable subscribers. Later cooperating cable system owners invested more than a million dollars in a microwave system that carries PENNARAMA broadcasts to a region where it is distributed to local cable system "head-ends", institutions, and industries using ITFS. The network forms a huge figure eight that extends the length and breadth of Pennsylvania.

PENNARAMA courses are intended for adults seeking degrees, for continuing education, or for personal enrichment of viewers. Currently Penn State is the only institution offering credit courses over the network. For a modest users fee, however, any institution in the state can utilize the facility if approved by a Users Panel that oversees program content. Penn State's courses normally are produced on the main campus using its extensive academic and production resources. Television broadcasts, usually one-half hour in length, are only one part of any course, providing information and pacing to learners. Learners are provided course manuals and study guides and can interact with Penn State instructors by mail and by telephone. Broadcasts are repeated throughout each week to accommodate learner schedules.

Additional courses on the system are produced by the Appalachian Community Service Network and the National University Consortium. Credit courses in nutrition, management, child psychology, language, philosophy, social psychology and business were cablecast in 1981. A series of legal education seminars provided the continuing education facet and a variety of credit free courses were also cablecast. Initially a low-cost audit option was offered for learners who did not want academic credit, but this practice has not been continued. While

little evidence exists on informal use of PENNARAMA materials, experience elsewhere suggests that many nonmatriculated viewers are taking advantage of this extensive educational service.

Trempealeau County, Wisconsin

Located in the rolling hills of Western Wisconsin, Trempealeau County has only about 25,000 residents. Fewer than 3,000 people live in its largest town. Yet it has an interactive cable television system -- the "two-way" local residents call it -- with 36 channel capacity that was the nation's first consumer-owned cable cooperative. Currently more than 3,000 county households receive cable and expansion plans will nearly triple that number.

The system developed because Trempealeau County's eight small school districts wanted to remain independent but couldn't afford staff and materials for a comprehensive curriculum. Busing wasn't the answer, so a cooperative was formed. A federal loan provided 133 miles of line, three microwave towers, an earth receiving station, and origination facilities in each of the eight school systems.

Currently, 21 of the 36 channels are programmed. Each school district has one, another is a public access channel, and others carry commercial or educational material. Educational channels are assigned to the Appalachian Community Service Network, the Minnesota Education Network, and the network of the Wisconsin Educational Communications Board. The two state networks are received directly without cost. ACSN fees are paid by the cooperative. A consortium of nearby University of Wisconsin campuses assisted in designing and equipping the system and use it to provide in-service training for county teachers. The local area technical institute began offering lower division undergraduate credit courses in fall 1982.

Other adult-oriented programming includes a character generated "bulletin board" and 11 weekly call-in programs hosted by, among others, the county extension agent, public health nurse, sheriff, and the cable system manager. Much of this programming is directed to 11 "nutrition sites" where senior citizens gather for a noon meal. Also parents have used the two-way system to communicate with admissions and financial officers at area colleges. It also permits county school personnel to conduct county-wide teleconferences that have involved administrators, board members, teams of teachers, and student groups. Cablecasts on school system channels are viewed by many Trempealeau adults, it is thought, keeping them in touch with their schools but also providing them other ways of learning more themselves.

Spokane, Washington

In addition to operating an extensive closed circuit television system, the Spokane public school system was awarded the license for the city's public television station. When Cox Cable built Spokane's cable television system in 1976, that station (KSPS) became the "head-end" of an extensive educational television effort utilizing five dedicated channels. It is an example of effective cooperation among educational institutions -- school systems and colleges, both public and private. Learning opportunities for all are plentiful.

In addition to the five cable channels devoted to education, there is a channel for public access, a 24-hour governmental affairs channel, one for health and medical programs, and a channel dedicated to religious and inspirational cablecasts. Plans for a cable-link library reference service never materialized and there is no interactive capabilities.

The consortium that controls educational programming in the Spokane area includes the public school system, two community colleges, two state colleges (one in nearby Idaho), two private universities, and two non-public school systems. Initially, at least, the school system utilized all five educational channels until 4:30 p.m. when the institutions of higher education took over. Recently, however, a community college has begun early morning offerings. Included in these learning opportunities for adults are both credit and noncredit courses. Eastern Washington State University, a member of the consortium, subscribes to Appalachian Community Service Network's satellite program service, making these programs

available to the entire system. The system has also been utilized for teleconferences relevant to the continuing education interests of Spokane's professional and vocational groups.

IMPLICATIONS

The six case studies, briefly summarized here, constitute a nonrandom sample of educational offerings being aired over cable television systems around the nation. It is impossible to determine if this sample is typical of what is being done. Perhaps the value of studies such as this is to illustrate the potential of a technology like cable television as a tool for adult educators to use in serving learners. There are, in addition, several more specific implications of these data.

Clearly cable television provides a way of reaching a larger number of adult learners, many of whom may presently be unserved. Contributions to their education may be formal, informal, and also unintentional. It is clear that cable television systems are carrying both credit and noncredit courses as well as a great deal of informational programming that is educational in nature. Beyond this, it seems reasonable to assume that many adults expand their educational horizons by viewing material not intended to educate them. Programs aimed at children but viewed by adults is a good example, and sometimes older people view programs just because they are being aired. Furthermore, evidence from other studies suggests that viewing television frequently stimulates people to engage in further learning -- buying a book, visiting the library, talking with someone, joining a discussion group, or taking a class. In this sense, television is a motivator for learning rather than the teacher.

Another implication of these data is that cooperation appears to pay dividends. There is an impressive amount of cooperative efforts -- among often competing providers, among a variety of educational institutions, and between profit-oriented cable system operators and non-profit institutions and organizations in the community. One obvious result of this concerted activity is that the high costs of producing and delivering adult education can be substantially reduced. Educators are provided the delivery system without cost and, in most cases, are given production facilities and technical assistance. Similarly there is little, if any, cost when volunteer producers and technicians produce informational and community oriented programs that help educate viewers in a rich variety of subject matter areas.

Adult educators are well advised to pay attention to cable television franchising procedures and to make certain that the educational potential of this technology is utilized in their communities. Doing so will insure even greater success in their efforts to serve the "learning society".

AUDIO CONFERENCING: A SELECTED APPLICATION IN A
NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATIONAL MODEL

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Gwendolyn G. Otte

Abstract

We live in an age of rapid change. The field of education, just as any other discipline, is being impacted by technological expansion and the knowledge explosion. Techniques for orderly growth and even survival within educational systems require a balance between traditional and new creative methods in the teaching/learning processes.

Several educational delivery models have emerged in non-traditional approaches to education. One is the Facsimile Model which is an exact copy or replication of traditional teaching methods utilizing non-traditional delivery systems. It has been applied to academic and continuing education courses at University of Alaska, School of Nursing to meet the learning needs of both proximal and distal site learners. Audio conferencing is one of the delivery systems being used for courses that fit this model.

The purpose of this presentation is to describe the application of the Facsimile Model, utilizing audio conferencing, to convey content. With over a dozen audio conference courses being offered each year by the School, sufficient experience and evaluative data is being accumulated to describe criteria for selection, advantages and disadvantages, and participants' response to this educational method.

Introduction

Providing education today is a unique challenge, one which requires responsive planning. Factors including economic constraints, geographic vastness, minimal structural support systems and population diversity have necessitated and promoted the use of less traditional methods of educational delivery. In addition, the knowledge explosion and the advances in technology necessitate constant adaptation and modification in order to provide accessible, quality education to meet learner needs and expectations. Strategies for maintenance, orderly growth and even survival of education programs are dependent upon a balance between traditional and innovative methods in the teaching/learning process.

The delivery of education in Alaska has been augmented by the establishment of the learn/Alaska Network in 1980. It is an educational delivery system for interactive audio conferencing, video teleconferencing and instructional television. This system has resulted in access to educational programs by virtually every community in Alaska.

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With educational offerings being under-utilized in urban areas and until recently inaccessible in rural settings, meeting the learning needs of a wide variety of individuals presents a special challenge. The University of Alaska, Anchorage, School of Nursing has responded by introducing a wide range of educational opportunities utilizing several non-traditional approaches for academic and continuing education.

There are four models of non-traditional delivery of education: the Facsimile Model, the Facilitated Self-Study Model, the Self-Directed Study Model and the Independent Self-Study Model (Otte, Evans). The Facsimile Model is an exact copy; therefore, it is a replication of traditional teaching methods utilizing a non-traditional system, i.e., telecommunications. The technology facilitates a replication of standard educational practices for both proximal and distal students. The concept class cohesiveness is an integral part of this model since students come together via audioconferencing at specifically designated times. Sites may have a single student or groups of students participating in the course. There are a number of examples of the Facsimile Model depending on the delivery system utilized, i.e., one-way video, one-way audio, a combination of two-way audio and one-way video, and two-way audio (interactive audio-conferencing).

Interactive Audio-Conferencing/Facsimile Model

The purpose of this presentation is to discuss interactive audio-conferencing as utilized in the Facsimile Model. Evaluation of process variables is critical to this discussion. Content in all cases is predetermined and developed. The process elements of delivery systems, sources of content, interaction and locus of control (Otte, Evans) are especially important in this non-traditional model and directly affect both real and perceived access to the teaching/learning experience. Knippers and Ulrich differentiate between physical and psychological access. The former includes physical components of the delivery system and sources of content; psychological access encompasses aspects of interaction, climate, motivation and control in the learning experience.

Any application of the Facsimile Model including interactive audio-conference courses uses the telecommunication system primarily to convey content. Its major advantage is to provide greater geographic access to educational programs for proximal and distal site learners. For audio-conferencing, the basic requirements include a suitable room with telephone jack, a portable convener and set of microphones.

Perry and Perry reported five types of stimuli to consider in media selection. They include the following: spoken word, sounds other than words, printed words, still pictures and motion pictures. In interactive audio conference courses, there is the ability to use the spoken word, sounds other than words and printed words. A key to successful interactive audio conferencing is to provide printed material such as a student manual or course syllabus. This keeps students from becoming bored or distracted and adds a visual component. The instructor also plays a dominant role as an information giver, motivator, and source of feedback for students.

Interactive audio-conferencing is not one of the glamour technologies like instructional television, computers or video disc. It is more practical both in terms of cost and time for development. Audio-conferencing is not a new way of communication; telephones have been in use for over 100 years. It is, however, a relatively new delivery system for education.

The primary benefit of audio-conferencing as a delivery system is interaction. The importance of interactive communication for the success of courses delivered via this method cannot be overstated: Interaction does not naturally occur; it needs to be created and built into each class. Instructor-to-student and student-to-student interaction between and at sites is essential. Creating the identity of a class within and between sites is also important. The lines of communication between student and instructor, whether proximal or distal, are the same. The physical presence of the instructor at the proximal site may be considered an advantage or disadvantage. Since the student-teacher relationship is critical, it needs constant reinforcement, especially for the distal learner. Learner needs

and feedback guide the instructor's approach to the proximal as well as the distal classroom. Site visits, site-to-site student projects, individual phone calls to students and exchange of photographs between all participants have been used to increase the relationship between the student and instructor.

Locus of control refers to perceptions of where the regulation of content and process occurs. The control may be external to the learner and regulated by teachers or internally controlled by the student. The locus of control in the Facsimile Model is primarily external to the learner. Although the model is highly structured, any application still promotes self-directed learning with individual modifications and students' control in selecting this method of educational delivery.

Discussion

There are basically two types of courses using this method being implemented at the present time. One type is a concentrated (conc) course which is 1-2 full day sessions. The other is a segmented (seg) courses that runs a few hours per week over an entire semester. Table 1 gives the breakdown of the courses by the type, number of students registered and the completion rates for each course. The completion rates are based on the number of students completing the course with satisfactory performance. Generally, it appears that the completion rates (97%) for concentrated courses are higher than the long term segmented courses.

TABLE 1

Evaluation of Interactive Audio Conference/Facsimile Model Courses

Course #	Course Title & Credit	Type	# Sites	Enrollment	Completion Rate*
<u>FALL 1981</u>					
NS 110	Nursing as a Personal & Social Response - 3 credits	Seg	2	19	79%
HS 216	Health Disruptions & Treatment Modalities - 3 credits	Seg	2	19	79%
<u>SPRING 1982</u>					
NS 402	Concentration in Professional Nursing - 10 credits	Seg	2	20	100%
NS 407	Nursing Implications in Prescription Drug Administration - 2 credits	Seg	2	29	90%
NS 593	Uniqueness of Aging - 1.5 CEUs	Conc	2	39	90%
<u>FALL 1982</u>					
NS 110	Nursing as a Personal & Social Response - 3 credits	Seg	2	35	89%
NS 402	Concentration in Professional Nursing - 10 credits	Seg	2	20	100%
NS 493/593	Role of the Nursing Manager - 2 credits	Seg	5	39	80%
NS 527	Nursing Care Conferences - 1.2-4.8 CEUs	Seg	8	47	in progress
NS 534	Nursing Diagnosis & the Problem Oriented Record - 1.6 CEUs	Conc	5	67	99%
NS 593	Uniqueness of Aging - 1.5 CEUs	Conc	3	39	97%

NS 593	Counseling Techniques - 1.5 CEUs	Conc	7	33	97%
NS 593	Legal Aspects - 1.5 CEUs	Conc	3	20	100%
NS 632	Role Socialization in Nursing Education - 3 credits	Seg	2	8	100%

Average Completion Rate (Concentrated Courses)	-----	77%
Average Completion Rate (Segmented Courses)	-----	97%
Average Completion Rate (Total)	-----	91%

$$\text{*Completion Rate} = \frac{\text{Enrollment} - (\text{Withdrawal} + \text{Incompletes} + \text{Failures})}{\text{Enrollment}}$$

The students' response to this method was analyzed by a Likert Scale evaluation tool developed at the UAA, School of Nursing. Content, presentation, method of delivery and instructional feedback were the areas evaluated. Five of the 11 courses were sampled with a response being obtained from 74 students (38%). Of the courses evaluated three were concentrated courses and two were segmented courses. The preliminary results show a positive response to the content presented with 97% rating it "well to adequately presented," and 99% rating the instructor/facilitator as "very useful to somewhat useful." The overall impression of the delivery system was rated "very useful to somewhat useful" by 86% and as of "little use" by 14%. In comparing the proximal site participants (69%) with the distal site participants (31%), course flexibility was the only statistically significant variable. Distal participants indicated that the delivery method provided more flexibility in meeting their educational needs.

Students were also asked to comment on factors which promoted or detracted from the learning experience. Student positive and negative comments were then categorized as either physical (i.e., technical difficulties, low cost, no tables, home-based, etc.) or psychological (i.e., relaxed setting, personal approach, impersonal, lack of class feeling, etc.) access elements. Comments reflecting psychological access were most often cited as factors which both positively and negatively influenced the experience. Eighty-three percent of the positive comments related to elements of psychological access such as climate and interaction. Sixty-three percent of the negative comments also reflected concern with psychological aspects as opposed to physical access.

While non-traditional delivery systems promote general, geographic access, individual physical access is often overlooked. Receipt of materials on time, operational audio conference equipment and classroom layout are some of the factors which influence physical access and ultimately participant response to this method of delivery. However, even more important is psychological access which requires attention to climate, motivation and communication patterns.

A sample of 12 individuals including instructors and facilitators for interactive audio conference courses were surveyed to obtain information on their experience, comfort level, orientation and preceptions of advantages and disadvantages of audio conferencing. Eight respondents identified their comfort level with audio conferencing as "Good" or "Excellent" with the remaining respondents indicating a comfort level of "Fair" or "Poor". The majority of those surveyed (83%) had taught using this method only one or two times previously. In most cases (66%) lack of extensive experience with this educational delivery method did not affect their comfort level in audio conferencing. Previous experience as a participant in audio conferencing also was not found to correlate with comfort levels. Orientation to audio conferencing, either formal or informal, did appear to have a bearing on comfort with the system. Of the individuals who had only a fair or poor level of comfort, none had formal orientation and only one had any kind of informal orientation to audio conferencing.

Conclusion

The overall evaluation of the Facsimile Model utilizing interactive audio conferencing has been positive. Advantages include ease of implementation due to the fact that content and process are predefined. The high degree of external control may be important for

students who need built in motivators, group interaction, peer support and a strong student-teacher relationship. This method also facilitates large group instruction and allows for active participation by students. However, any application of this model may stifle individuality and spontaneity with its external control and lecture format. In addition, reliance on telecommunications for live delivery may cause problems in that technical difficulties can and will occur. An effective delivery system, well defined course content and instructor flexibility are important considerations in planning and implementing these courses.

Application of interactive audio conferencing in the Facsimile Model is only one method of delivering education today. It is a challenging process that requires further study for its continued effective implementation in educational settings,

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A DESIGN TO ENHANCE THE QUALITY, CONSISTENCY, AND
AVAILABILITY OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

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Abstract

Major shifts are taking place in our environment. Among these, the changing economic climate and rapid expansion of technological applications to various arenas have multiple ramifications for continuing professional education. New methods, which increase availability and accessibility of information, which complement adult learning styles, and which enhance the development of competent practitioners are essential to continuing education programs. The American Occupational Therapy Association has successfully produced a program with grant assistance from the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services which meets these criteria. Design, structure, and implementation strategies are delineated and defined. Additionally, implications for broader application are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The examination of continuing professional education which follows is set in the context of the health care industry. A brief analysis of the environment in which health care occurs is provided from political, social, technological, and economic perspectives. This furnishes the backdrop against which current trends emphasizing lifelong learning and adult education are viewed. The goals of professional continuing education and various methods designed to achieve these goals are then examined. The model designed by The American Occupational Therapy Association (AOTA) and funded in part by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) is defined in detail. Each step of the three year program as well as philosophical orientation, collaborative design strategies, and educational prototype are included. Implications of the use of this model in other professional continuing education efforts are drawn.

THE ENVIRONMENT

Our environment is in transition and the rapidity with which changes occur is overwhelming. Economically, existing social programs are forced to operate on shrinking budgets. Revisions in fiscal management are being made in all kinds of industry in our society, including health care. There is clearly increased competition for funding and the source of funding for health care is shifting from federal and state governments to individuals and private industry. The financial impact of centralized versus decentralized management is being closely examined as is effective use of manpower, particularly allied health personnel. The term "cost-benefit" is frequently applied to many and various components of society.

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In contrast to the stark economic picture, there is a blossoming of interest and financial investment in technology. No segment of society or aspect of its organization has been ignored as the pervasiveness of technology continues. The ability to prolong life, improve the quality of life, and to facilitate adaptation to disability is greatly enhanced by medical technological innovations. Information is more readily available and individuals and businesses are becoming discriminating and selective in screening communications, yet communication flourishes. Collaboration and networking are today's buzzwords. In health care, technology results in 1) a stronger need for continuing education to maintain the quality of service delivery; 2) increased specialization; and 3) the proliferation of allied health personnel. Educational technology is more widely and creatively used for basic and ongoing education.

In the political arena, there is a decrease in government spending and decentralization of services. Individuals are, therefore, more responsible in public affairs. State legislatures and agencies are competing for control of present programs. Regulation of health care continues at both the federal and state levels with major influence on the delivery mode and manpower configuration.

Congruent with individual responsibility for political activity, there is increased individualism in the social context. Life styles are changing, the family unit has declined, single households are numerous. Individuals are accepting self responsibility for health and quality of life as the average lifespan has increased. Alternative educational patterns which accommodate lifestyle variations are certainly more prevalent. The trend toward vocational/technical education has been accentuated by the population shift to the southern states.

Throughout society, then, our context for goal setting, decision-making, and implementation is different almost daily. Because such change requires new skills in order that individual adaptation can occur, the demands on the educational system are increased.

LIFELONG LEARNING

Along with the general social emphasis on adult development, there has been increased focus on professional education past basic entry knowledge. Dave (1976, p. 34) defined lifelong education as "a process of accomplishing personal, social, and professional development throughout the lifespan in order to enhance the quality of life of both individuals and their collectives". Health care professionals have two bases of ongoing education - personal and professional. With the federal establishment of the Professional Standards Review Organizations, competency in health care has been increasingly studied. A quest for quality and self-policing is evident in many health professions.

Mandatory continuing education was initiated in many professions as a requirement for licensure renewal. The tally of continuing education units was designed as a means of ensuring to the public that professionals were competent. Now that early requirements have been operational for an extended period, the question of the quality of continuing education experiences and their relevance to needed change in the professions has arisen. At a recent AMA Annual Conference on Continuing Medical Education for State Medical Associations, a fresh look at the "link between needs assessment, educational objectives, and evaluation" was emphasized. (Johnson, 1981, p. 2945). Their surveys indicate that mandatory continuing education has stopped. Additionally, the growth of professional mandatory continuing education is a threat to the voluntariness of adult education. Indeed, Houle (1973, p. x) states that there is "irritation from proliferation of courses and conferences, each of which may be valuable but which are not collectively undergirded by any unifying conception of how education can be used in a mature, complex, and continuing way to achieve excellence of service throughout the lifespan".

Increased familiarity with the definition of a profession and its criteria has prompted an ambitious quest for professionalism in some health fields. Beyond the various steps to be achieved for initial competence, the professional person expects to

participate in a structured system for maintaining and increasing adequate knowledge. The focus on recertification and various means to improve competence is designed to aid in the professionalizing process. Yet it has become clear that simply the addition of educational programs or the imposition of regulatory schema will not result in professionalism.

Continuing education has become important for a variety of reasons. The expansion in knowledge and specialization of practice has altered the initial educational process in the professions. A wide variety of continued learning opportunities during the active service phase of professional careers is needed. (Houle, 1973, p. 11). Houle states that the ultimate goal of continuing education is "to ensure the establishment and maintenance of ethical, intellectual, and social standards in a professionalizing occupation" (1973, p. 74).

Yet this definition of the purpose, scope, and design of continuing education is affected by economic climate. Recent shortages in funding have influenced the development of alternate presentation modes to accommodate the decrease in availability of programs to a wide geographic audience. So the final challenge to professional continuing education is to achieve its social responsibility in an environment characterized by diminishing financial resources and the constraints that imposes.

The new technology provides hope - it is now possible to disseminate continuing education to widely dispersed individuals and to groups of professionals at their worksites. Personal computers can accommodate individual learning packages and self instructional materials. Inservice programs can use commercially available educational designs and technologies. The need for tools to accommodate the pursuit of individual responsibility in our society is growing and technological innovations are keeping pace with that need. As educational technology is refined, it becomes less costly to produce and distribute, and, thus, it can be readily assimilated into the present environment.

Over the past six years, occupational therapy has been evaluating strategies related to professional competence, continuing education, recertification, and advanced skills recognition in concert with prominent environmental issues. The educational program of The American Occupational Therapy Association has included regional workshops, films, videotapes, and audiotapes. Three competency-based programs, one in vocational readiness, one in mental health, and one in gerontology are now in progress. These are based on the design of a previous competency-based curriculum presented for occupational therapists in the school system.

COMPETENCY-BASED EDUCATIONAL DESIGN

With the passage of PL 94-142, there was a rapid increase in the demand for experienced personnel to provide a full range of quality educational services to handicapped students being integrated into the public school system. In response to this demand, AOTA, with cooperative funding from the Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, initiated a three year project to provide experienced occupational therapy personnel with the specialized competencies required to effectively provide occupational therapy services within the school system.

During Year One of the competency-based advanced training program, the roles and functions of school-based occupational therapists were defined through field survey and an accompanying literature review. These preliminary roles and functions were identified within the context of roles and functions previously delineated as those required by entry-level occupational therapy personnel. Consideration of roles and functions led to the specification of a taxonomy of competencies and the definition of performance objectives needed to achieve each competency. An advanced training curriculum was subsequently designed based upon specific competency statements and performance objectives with educational text and audio-visual materials developed in support of the curriculum design.

The second year of the project was designated as the pilot study phase during which the educational components were field tested in five inservice training programs. A total of eight faculty were selected and trained and over 200 persons participated in the pilot programs. The effectiveness of the competency-based pilot programs was measured using both formative and summative assessments. Formative assessment instruments provided the basis for ongoing evaluation of the project's educational content and materials. Summative evaluations, administered to participants pre and post training, were designed to measure the impact of the program upon participants' perceptions of the value of specified competencies, proficiency level, attitude change, and cognitive growth. Based upon information obtained during the extensive evaluation process, modifications and revisions were made in preparation for the full-scale implementation of the program.

Following revision, eight competency-based curriculum modules were produced with related audio-visual components and a curriculum guide. A national faculty of 64 persons was selected for the third and final phase of leadership training from a pool of over 500 applicants with experience in school-based occupational therapy and a commitment to implement the program at the state level. During the final year of the project, over 2000 participants in 59 locations, nationwide, completed the competency-based curriculum designed to provide advanced training of occupational therapists in the public school systems.

Essential to the success of the project was a mutually beneficial, cooperative relationship between the public and private sectors in committing resources to support a national continuing education program. An effective network of professional practitioners, educators and government representatives participated in the planning and implementation of the curriculum. Combined funding provided the financial resources needed to develop and present a quality continuing education experience. Summarized from The Final Report of the Advanced Training for Occupational Therapists in (Public) School Systems (1981) are the following key outcomes of this project: 1) identification of roles, functions and competencies of occupational therapists providing education-related services to handicapped students, 2) design and implementation of a 60 hour competency-based advanced training curriculum, 3) publication of educational materials, 4) selection and training of 128 national faculty members to implement the program at 61 local sites, 5) education and advanced-level training of 2000 participants, 6) involvement of over 175 colleges, universities, elementary schools and/or community agencies in providing resources to the project, 7) provision of graduate credit and/or CEUs through 19 universities and colleges and 8) the production of both a training and operational model which may be replicated by other disciplines within the framework of a coordinated private/public and state/federal/local partnership.

In occupational therapy, continuing education has been stressed as an individual responsibility. The national association program has been successful, but the direction of the program has been modified in an effort to better serve member needs. The competency-based educational model provides a structure which can accommodate environmental influences, lifelong learning goals, and demands for professional competence.

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DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT NONFORMAL
ADULT EDUCATION ORIENTATIONS AND PRACTICES

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Abstract

Four basic types of nonformal adult education were identified and studied both at the descriptive and analytical levels. Data were collected through the structured interview method, the sample population being 25 practitioners working in voluntary associations. 50% of the voluntary associations studied were centered on *Animation*; 40% were centered on *Conscientization*; 8% on *Self-Directed Learning* and 2% on *Instruction*.

INTRODUCTION

Nonformal adult education is becoming an increasingly diversified field of intervention. The learning activities which take place outside of the institutionalized school system reflect the heterogeneous and often opposite educational options of our modern society. This situation brings forth the need for a comprehensive framework which can convey an overall perspective of those diverse coexisting options.

The purpose of this fundamental research was to identify the basic types of nonformal adult education and to verify, in the field, the existence of this propounded typology or framework.

Based on French sociologist Touraine's macrosociological orientations, the framework identified four basic types of intervention. The first type, corresponding to the Functions orientation, emphasized INSTRUCTION; the second type, corresponding to the Decisions orientation, emphasized ANIMATION; the third, corresponding to the Controls orientation, emphasized CONSCIENTIZATION; the fourth, corresponding to the Actions orientation, emphasized SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING. The basic hypothesis this framework rested upon stated that any educational intervention resulted from the educational agents' ideological options with regard to both social and educational realities.

METHODOLOGY

The existence of the propounded framework was verified in the field. Data corresponding to the framework's identified variables were collected through the structured interview method. The sample population of nonformal adult educators was 25 practitioners working in urban voluntary associations selected at random. The data were studied at two levels: descriptive and analytical. At the descriptive level, through frequency and percentage analysis, 47 variables describing both the orientations and practices of the sampled voluntary associations were studied under six components. Five of these 47 variables have been discussed here. At the analytical level, through the use of ordinal scales, the dominant types of intervention were delimited and the relative importance of each was discussed.

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MAJOR FINDINGS

The orientations and practices of each one of the propounded framework's types of intervention have been discussed, for the present purpose, under the five most representative variables: 1) educators' goals; 2) educators' roles; 3) contents; 4) methodology; 5) fields of intervention.

The Instruction-centered type of intervention (T-1)

1) The main social goal of the adult educators who identified themselves with this first model was the social INTEGRATION of the adult learners. The main consequent educational goal was the QUALIFICATION of the learners.

2) The adult educators were primarily defined as TEACHERS whose role was to TRANSMIT specific, pre-established knowledge.

3) THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE and/or TECHNICAL SKILLS constituted the main topical contents of the learning process.

4) The basic methodology consisted in STRUCTURING and PRESENTING the learning content to the adult students.

5) The most typical fields of intervention were: voluntary associations providing training or courses similar to those offered by the school system; nonformal adult basic education centered on qualification.

The Animation-centered type of intervention (T-2)

The *Animation*-centered model, in practice, subdivides into two types of intervention: the first sub-model (T-2a) is learner-oriented while the second (T-2b) is collectivity-oriented.

1) The main social goal of the adult educators who identified themselves with this second model was the active social ADAPTATION of the adult learners. The main consequent educational goals were the DEVELOPMENT and the PARTICIPATION of the learners as individuals (T-2a) or as members of collectivities (T-2b).

2) The adult educators were primarily defined as *ANIMATEURS* whose role was to FACILITATE the learning of individuals in the first sub-model (T-2a) and the action of the members of the collectivity in the second sub-model (T-2b).

3) Personal EXPERIENCES and ATTITUDES constituted the main topical contents of the learner-oriented sub-model (T-2a) while ACTION-CENTERED SKILLS and social ATTITUDES constituted the main topical contents of the collectivity-oriented sub-model (T-2b).

4) The basic methodology consisted in CREATING AN EDUCATIONAL CLIMATE which would promote the use of the experiences, interests and resources of the learners as individuals (T-2a) and as social groups dealing with collective problem-solving (T-2b).

5) The most typical fields of intervention of the first sub-model (T-2a) were: voluntary associations or institutes offering courses which do not lead to a diploma.

The most typical fields of intervention of the second sub-model (T-2b) were: community development; international adult education; nonformal functional adult basic education and literacy programs.

The Conscientization-centered type of intervention (T-3)

1) The main social goal of the adult educators who identified themselves with this third model was the social MOBILIZATION of the adult citizens. The main consequent educational goals were the political CONSCIENTIZATION and the ORGANIZATION of the citizens.

2) The adult educators were primarily defined as MILITANTS whose role was to TRANSMIT theoretical knowledge regarding the structures and the functioning of society and to ASSIST the action of the citizens' groups.

3) THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE as well as ACTION-CENTERED SKILLS constituted the main topical contents.

4) The basic methodology consisted in constantly LINKING THEORY WITH PRACTICE, that is, linking the critical interpretation of society as well as the interpretation of the actual problematic situation experienced by a given social group to the consequent social actions this group was to undertake.

5) The most typical fields of intervention were: the voluntary associations or citizens' committees; nonformal adult basic education and literacy programs which were centered on consciousness-raising and sociopolitical action.

The Self-Directed Learning-centered type of intervention (T-4)

1) The main social goal of the adult educators who identified themselves with this fourth model was the AUTONOMOUS ACTION of the group they belonged to. The main consequent educational goal was the COOPERATION of all the members of the group.

2) The adult educators were primarily defined as PEERS whose role was to SHARE the educational responsibilities along with all the other members of the group.

3) ACTION-CENTERED SKILLS as well as COMMUNAL ATTITUDES constituted the main topical contents of the learning process.

4) The basic methodology consisted in ESTABLISHING THE FUNCTIONAL NETWORKS which were to support the group's self-directed learning projects.

5) The most typical fields of intervention were: cooperatives; autonomous communal action groups.

The findings confirmed the existence of all four basic types of nonformal adult education: 50% of the voluntary associations studied were centered on *Animation* (T-2) -36% of these emphasizing the actualization of learners as individuals (T-2a) and 14% emphasizing the actualization of learners as community members (T-2b). 40% of the associations were centered on Conscientization (T-3), emphasizing political consciousness-raising linked to social action of citizens. 8% were centered on Self-Directed Learning (T-4), emphasizing experiential learning of individuals or groups. Only 2% were centered on Instruction (T-1), emphasizing an institutional-like teaching process.

CONCLUSIONS

Four basic orientations and their consequent practices were identified.

The *Animation*-centered orientation (T-2) was found to be prevailing. Its first sub-model (T-2a) was greatly influenced by the HUMANIST PSYCHOLOGY movement and is well characterized by North American andragogical authors such as ROGERS, KNOWLES, KIDD. Its second sub-model (T-2b) was greatly influenced by the ECONOMICAL and CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT movement and is well characterized by UNESCO and COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AGENTS' goals and practices.

The Conscientization-centered orientation (T-3) was also found to be very actual. This model was mostly influenced by two complementary trends: on the one hand, EUROPEAN neomarxist sociologists, on the other hand, LATIN AMERICAN educators, both providing critical frameworks for the interpretation of social and educational realities. FREIRE has had a great impact on this orientation.

The Self-Directed Learning orientation (T-4) is incipient but could possibly come to have a real impact on the whole practice of adult education. This orientation is well characterized, on the social level, by ILLICH and, on the educational level, by TOUGH.

The Instruction-centered orientation (T-1) is almost non-existent in nonformal education. This model, greatly influenced by TRADITIONAL PEDAGOGY, reflects the norms and values of the formal institutional school system.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The analysis of the whole of the socioeducational types of intervention leads to the understanding of the very basic dynamics of the current nonformal adult education orientations and practices. Any one-sided interpretation of these orientations and practices is thus impeded.

The propounded framework may be used as a tool to identify, compare, analyze the various types of intervention prevailing in the field.

Through the analysis of the main oppositions among the various types of intervention, the adult educators' different options are made clear:

- traditional pedagogy (T-1) v. progressive andragogy (T-2a);
- individual-centered approaches (T-1, T-2a) v. collectivity-centered approaches (T-2b, T-3, T-4);
- radical political socioeducational interventions (T-3) v. reformist, adaptive socioeducational interventions (T-2b).

VOLUNTEERISM AS AN ADULT EDUCATION ACTIVITY:
A PHILOSOPHICAL ANALYSIS

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Abstract

Volunteerism as an educative activity for adults has the advantage of offering a social context which can be educative in ways that take account of their autonomy, prior experience and need to exercise critical thinking in application of virtuous traits of character. The major difficulty with volunteerism as a mode of adult learning is that it lacks structure -- in most instances the adult learner must learn how to structure his/her experience in order to make them educative. It is in this area that professional adult educators and counselors can help volunteers to learn to benefit more fully from their experiences as volunteers.

Volunteerism and related terms are frequently found in adult education literature and included as part of the activities addressed by professional adult education associations. At the applied level in adult education, there appears to be a growing trend toward the acceptance of volunteerism as a mode of experiential learning. In other words, interest is growing in the transference of knowledge and skills acquired by volunteers through volunteer experience and training to paid employment, higher levels of volunteer activity, and/or academic credit and the promotion of such acquisitions to prospective volunteers as a form of motivational incentive for participation in volunteer activity.

The inclusion of volunteerism within the bounds of adult education and the trend toward its usage as a form of experiential learning indicates a need to explore the philosophical base for this situation. Volunteerism classified as a form of adult learning activity points to the need to answer such questions as (1) in what ways is such activity "educational"? (2) in what ways is it not educational? and (3) if it is indeed established as an educational activity, what role or roles are appropriate for professional adult educators in working with volunteers to develop and implement experiential learning goals.

Methodology

This sort of philosophical issue appears appropriate to the application of the techniques of conceptual or linguistic analysis. This kind of philosophical approach is comparatively new (within the last 20 years, according to Elias and Merriam in Philosophical Foundations of Adult Education (1980)) and has been developed largely by several British philosophers. Among these analysts are R. S. Peters, R. F. Dearden, P. H. Hirst, J. Passmore and G. Ryle who have dealt with concepts in liberal education, and K. H. Lawson and R. W. K. Paterson who have specifically discussed issues related to adult education. Dearden, Hirst, and Peters edited Education and the Development of Reason (1972), a compilation of philosophical essays by British analysts. Some of the conceptual analysis from this book will be referred to in this paper.

Elias and Merriam (1980) describe conceptual analysis as being concerned with the analysis of concepts and the grounds for knowledge, beliefs, actions, and activities that make up human life. They further state that conceptual analysis clarifies language through

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the use of such techniques of logic as definitions, deductive and inductive reasoning, the pointing out of logical fallacies, and the establishment of criteria for determining the truth or falsity of ideas. For example, conceptual analysts seek model cases in which the concept is used in such a way that everyone would agree that they are good uses of the concept. Contrary cases in which the term clearly cannot be appropriately used are also sought. And, in addition, analysts examine the borderline cases whenever possible because such strained usages, although legitimate, help to clarify the limits of the use of the concept.

Of the aforementioned British philosophers the most prominent is R. S. Peters. According to Peters (1967), the concept of education entails several requirements: (1) valuable and worthwhile knowledge is transmitted; (2) individuals care about what they learn; (3) they want to achieve certain standards associated with what is learned; (4) there is an awareness of what is learned and the learning process is voluntarily undertaken; (5) there is a cognitive element and an understanding of principles; (6) what is learned is cognitively connected with other areas of learning so that each area is seen in relation to other areas; and (7) what is learned is usable. Peters, Lawson, and Paterson make a distinction between the education of adults and adult education. Paterson (1979) asserts that education includes nine different kinds of knowledge or subject matter -- mathematics, the physical sciences, history, the human sciences, languages, the arts, morals, religion, and philosophy. He further states that the difference between education for children and that for adults is that the latter has two additional objectives -- the development of the virtues of reason and the learning of moral values. Given this background on conceptual analysis techniques and the British school of philosophical thought, let us now look at the concept of volunteerism as a form of adult education activity.

Analysis of the Concept of Volunteerism

Volunteer activity is found in many, many forms in contemporary American life. Some familiar model cases are scout and other youth leaders, political and other cause campaign workers, and board members of myriad non-profit organizations. Most volunteers (although not all) are adults, that is, persons of mature years and status. The common denominator for these persons is not the type of volunteer work performed, but the fact that they do not do it for any form of remuneration (although volunteers can be reimbursed for out-of-pocket expenses and still be considered volunteers). So, the obvious question arises -- why do volunteers do the thousands of jobs they do when they are not paid -- at least not in terms of wages and salaries?

Surveys of volunteers indicate that they say they devote time to volunteer activity largely out of a sincere desire to help other people who need assistance and otherwise would not be able to afford the services rendered. Although the volunteers themselves do not express their reasons for volunteering in philosophical terms, the situation implies a certain conscious value orientation on their part. It also indicates that volunteers likely possess certain traits of character or virtues (learned by example from elders and peers, according to Gilbert Tyle in his essay "Can virtue be taught?" (1972) and are autonomous in making reasoned choices about leisure activity (as per R. F. Dearden in "Autonomy and education" (1972)). In addition, it would seem that volunteers are capable of thinking critically about such topics as the meaning of their lives, their relationships with fellow human beings, and their need for critical thinking about conditions around them (expressed as a character trait by J. Passmore in "On teaching to be critical" (1972)).

As further evidence that volunteers do freely choose to undertake volunteer activity, surveys also indicate that they are characteristically the better educated persons in our society -- those who are fortunate enough to have had the educational background to be relatively free from want of basic necessities themselves and to have had the opportunities to acquire character traits and virtues which lead them to value helping others. This is not to say that disadvantaged adults do not or cannot "volunteer" -- they often do and in ways that cultural biases sometimes obscure from our understanding -- only that those persons who do volunteer (and respond to surveys) are predominantly middle-class, comparatively well-educated persons. However, such facts are relevant to P. H. Hirst's

discussion in "Liberal education and the nature of knowledge" (1972) of liberal education as a means to structure reality. The inference can be drawn that the better-educated adults in our society have had at least the opportunity to acquire the means of structuring reality through education while the disadvantaged have not.

In "Can virtue be taught?" (1972) Ryle's analysis of virtues or character traits emphasizes the importance of being morally educated so that we can recognize injustice and respond to it with indignation. He also indicates that virtues are not something that can be taught in the usual sense of a teaching process. Rather, Ryle says, we learn virtues first by being shown by others, then by being trained by others, and lastly by being trained by ourselves. There is evidence in the field of volunteerism that this process is the norm -- new volunteers are generally recruited and trained by other volunteers and they continue in this type of activity on the strength of their personal commitment. Moral indignation is not infrequently a factor in their commitment, whether to counseling prisoners or to assisting battered spouses or to collecting funds for research on a variety of unconquered diseases. In other words, once introduced to volunteer activity, the committed volunteer in effect trains himself/herself to continue to be of service to others. Thus commitment becomes an internal driving force for the dedicated volunteer.

Dearden uses Kant's definition of autonomy in his essay "Autonomy and education" (1972). According to Kant, a man is autonomous if in his actions he binds himself by moral laws legislated by his own reason, as opposed to being governed by his inclinations. One cannot help but think that volunteers epitomize this description of an autonomous adult. Many of them work long hours, sacrificing much of their leisure time for such activities as coaching little league teams, transporting emergency cases to hospitals, fighting fires, and aiding the victims of natural disasters such as floods and earthquakes. Persons with more selfish inclinations find plenty of ways to reason why they should not get involved.

In his discussion of autonomy, Dearden also provides support for the notion that volunteerism is, in a broad sense, an educational (developmental) activity for adults. He says that the exercise of autonomy is an important source of individual satisfaction -- it helps to develop the individual's self-concept, sense of personal worth, and right to be respected by others. Certainly these are important factors often cited in the psychological growth and development of adults, lending credence to the use of volunteerism by individual adults as a means to develop their autonomy.

Critical thinking appears highly relevant to consciously engaging in volunteer activity, following Passmore's discussion in "On Teaching to Be Critical" (1972). He notes that exhibiting a critical spirit means being alert to the possibility that established norms themselves ought to be rejected, that rules ought to be changed, and criteria used in judging performance modified. In this regard, volunteers implicitly reject the status quo in our society because through their efforts persons who are often on the fringes of existence -- for example, the disadvantaged, the elderly, those who are in prison or recently released -- are reached and given hope to find themselves again as valued members of society. In even stronger advocacy roles, volunteers have undertaken social change efforts of many kinds -- civil rights, human rights, environmental protection, and many other such movements are essentially volunteer efforts. In this sense, volunteerism can become a way to control passivity by developing appropriate action patterns in response to emotions, as mentioned by R. S. Peters in "The education of the emotions" (1972).

Because volunteer activity covers such a wide spectrum of opportunities to assist others, it also in many instances requires that volunteers receive considerable hours of training in requisite knowledge and skills. A Red Cross volunteer, for example, will likely spend hours learning how to carry out the duties and responsibilities of a blood-mobile or paramedic position. Likewise, scout leaders and other youth group officials are expected to complete training in leadership skills and the like. So, this is one way in which volunteer activity can be directly considered adult educational activity. Provision of the training necessary for fulfilling the duties and responsibilities of volunteer positions is a form of adult education because the clientele receiving the training are adults.

However, there remains a question as to whether training given volunteers is the only aspect of volunteer activity that is educational in nature. In The Activities of Teaching Thomas Green (1971) notes that the educational resources of a people run far beyond what is done in schools. He further says that there is education in the structure of basic social institutions. The usual definition of the latter includes the family, the school, the church, the workplace, and so forth. Voluntary associations are also considered a form of basic social institution and therefore an educative mode for their volunteer members.

The educative element within basic social institutions is life experience. Certainly John Dewey in Experience and Education (1938) agreed that life experience can be educative, providing that it interacts with the learner's intellect and is continuous with his/her past, present, and future experiences. So, it is possible that volunteer activity can, of itself, be an educational activity for those who engage in it. Whether this actually occurs depends largely on the intent of the individual volunteer, which returns us to the philosophical concept of autonomy or reasoned choice.

Since volunteer activity is performed for personal satisfaction and not for pay, the motives involved are a matter of individual concern. Volunteers can freely choose whether or not to participate in such activity, as well as where and when. With a wide variety of such activity available, they have a considerable range of possibilities from which to select what best suits them. Certainly it is possible for the individual volunteer to choose activities that match his/her particular interests and have the potential to enhance his/her knowledge and skills. For example, a middle-aged homemaker may acquire managerial skills serving as a volunteer executive director of a halfway house for alcoholics. An elderly person may become involved in a Retired Seniors Volunteer Program (RSVP) and learn secretarial skills. And a college student majoring in communications may use a volunteer public relations position to deliberately acquire practical experience in his/her field. In each case, the volunteer acquired new knowledge and/or skills which could be salable in seeking paid employment or provide upward mobility in a volunteer career, providing sufficient learning occurred and the volunteer experience was properly documented. However, the fact that such knowledge and/or skills may have value for paid or further volunteer employment and/or academic credit is not a necessary condition for their acquisition to be a form of educational activity. What is a necessary condition is that the individual volunteer freely and consciously chooses to learn new knowledge and/or acquire new skills and uses his/her volunteer activity as a means of doing so. In this context, volunteer activity can be a form of self-directed or autonomous learning.

Conclusion and Implications

This discussion was intended to reveal volunteerism as a form of adult education activity, i.e., as a mode of autonomous learning, through examination of several relevant philosophical concepts. Volunteerism as an educative activity for adults has the advantage of offering a social environment which can be educative in ways that take account of their autonomy, prior experience, and need to exercise critical thinking in applying virtuous traits of character. The major difficulty with volunteerism as a mode of adult learning is that it may lack structure -- in most instances, adults as volunteers must learn how to structure their own experiences. It is in this context that professional adult educators can help volunteers.

To illustrate the preceding point, let us return to R. S. Peters's (1967) definition of education with its seven criteria. The adult educator can help the volunteer (1) to recognize the valuable and worthwhile knowledge acquired through volunteer experience, thereby also helping the volunteer (2) to care about what they have learned and (3) to set standards for acquisition of additional learning. Since the adult volunteer/learner undertakes such self-directed learning voluntarily and is helped to become aware of what he/she has learned, criteria (4) is also achieved. And (5) and (6) can be achieved if the educator will help the volunteer to recognize the cognitive elements and underlying principles in their experience, for example, the administrative theories relevant to the role of a volunteer administrator, and to connect such learnings to other areas of learning, such as principles of behavioral or social psychology. Finally, if all the preceding criteria

are met, (7), usable learning, will also become achievable.

One more element would appear necessary to fully meet Paterson's (1979) definition of adult education -- the recognition of the development of the virtues of reason and the learning of moral values through volunteer activity. It should be apparent from the discussion of the British analyses of such educational concepts as the teaching of virtue (Ryle), autonomy (Dearden), critical thinking (Passmore), and the means of structuring reality (Hirst) that volunteerism can be used as a means to achieve such ends for the adult volunteer/learner. Thus adults can learn how to interact with their environment in educative ways and learn as well how to structure their experiences in ways that continuously enlarge their personal knowledge, understanding, autonomy, authenticity, and sense of place in the past, present, and future of the human race.

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THE VOLUNTEERS OF THE EIGHTIES

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Abstract

Volunteers are becoming increasingly important as budgets are being closely watched. We need to know who our volunteers are. A study was done in the city of New Carrollton, Maryland to find the demographic characteristics of volunteers as well as some of their volunteering habits. It was found that the typical volunteer is white or black, married, and either a male or female between the ages of 31 and 50. The volunteer has a family income of \$25,000 or more, and earns most, half or none of the family's income.

INTRODUCTION

In these days when inflation is running rampant and the federal government is increasingly cutting the budget, volunteers are becoming increasingly important. Many agencies and organizations are having their budgets cut and they need volunteer help in order to survive. Yet inflation may well be a very serious force opposing volunteerism, because it increases costs and at the same time reduces the ability of individuals to give time and money.

Many programs of the Cooperative Extension Service thrive on volunteers. Thus it is very important that we know who our volunteers are, where they come from and what characteristics they possess.

In doing research of past studies it was found that the questions who, what and where were answered, but only to the degree of their associations to voluntary organizations. Payne et al. (1972:232) reported that participating in voluntary activities was associated with age, sex, socioeconomic status, education, occupational status, race, marital status, having children and length of residence. Others (Action, 1975; Booth, 1972; Johnson, 1967; Cutler, 1976; Hyman and Wright, 1971; Bell and Force, 1956) have reported similar findings. While even some others (Curtis, 1971; Hausknecht, 1962) have some conflicting data. Reddy and Smith (1973:23) explained that it may be best to get a person who already has a record of many voluntary action involvements and is currently involved in some others.

However, most of the studies done are now over ten years old and therefore, tend to be outdated. From these studies several questions are raised concerning the volunteers of the 1980's. (1) What are their demographic characteristics? (2) What types of organizations or activities do persons volunteer? (3) How much time annually do they volunteer? (4) What part of the year, week and day do they volunteer? (5) Are there relationships between being a volunteer or non-volunteer and selected demographic characteristics? (6) Do persons who volunteer annually in multiple activities devote more time to each activity than those that volunteer only once or twice? Answers to these questions are attempted through this study.

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METHODOLOGY

The population for this study included adults from single family homes and apartment dwellers in the city of New Carrollton, Maryland. A random sample was taken to obtain a sample of 100 homes and 100 apartment units for a total of 200 units.

The instrument used was a written questionnaire designed to measure participation in voluntary activities as well as collect demographic data needed for analysis. The questionnaire was hand distributed and collected for maximum possible return. Data were analyzed using frequency distributions, measures of central tendency, chi square analysis and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient.

RESULTS

166 persons in the sample returned the questionnaire. Of that, 83 persons reported volunteering in some way during the given twelve month period.

The demographic characteristics of volunteers in the sample were as follows:

1. The mean age of volunteers was 42.8 years, ranging from 20 to 70.
2. 60.2 percent were females.
3. 69.8 percent had family incomes between \$25,000 and \$49,999.
4. All but one had at least a high school diploma.
5. Over half were employed full time and another 11 percent were employed part time.
6. 79.5 percent were white and 19.3 percent were black, however, 54.1 percent of whites volunteered and 55.2 percent of blacks volunteered.
7. 91.6 percent were married.
8. 77.1 percent lived in the community for over five years.
9. 73.5 percent owned their own residence.
10. 77.1 percent lived in houses.
11. Most volunteers had no children in the household under age 18.

Time of Year, Week and Day Volunteered

Most persons in the sample volunteered in the spring and summer and preferred to do so in the future during these same seasons. Most persons volunteered on the weekdays, but preferred to do future volunteering on the weekends. Most persons volunteered in the afternoons and also preferred to do so in the future.

Types of Organizations Volunteered For

The group-type persons volunteered for the most were hospitals and health groups, and secondly for religious groups such as churches. Volunteering for individual work ranked third followed closely by recreational, youth, fraternal and social and educational programs. Least mentioned were advocacy groups, political groups, welfare and community and civic groups.

The types of jobs they performed in a volunteer capacity in rank order were direct service, fund raising, administrative and clerical.

Volunteer Status

Volunteer status is the term used to designate volunteers from non-volunteers. Using chi square analysis the following relationships were found:

1. Persons between the ages of 31 and 50 were more likely to volunteer than any other age groups.
2. There was no significant relationship between volunteer status and sex.
3. Persons whose family income was \$25,000 or more were more apt to volunteer than persons whose family income was less.

4. There was no significant relationship between volunteer status and educational attainment.
5. There was no significant relationship between volunteer status and employment status.
6. Whites and blacks were equally apt to volunteer.
7. Married persons were more likely to volunteer than persons who were not married.
8. Persons who lived in the community for over five years were more likely to volunteer than persons who lived in the community for five years or less.
9. Persons who owned their residence were more likely to volunteer than persons who rent their residence.
10. Single family house dwellers and apartment dwellers were equally apt to volunteer.
11. Persons who had children between the ages of 5 and 17 were more likely to volunteer than persons not having children in this age group.

Multiple Volunteerism

The average number of hours spent volunteering annually was 73.6. The average number of jobs volunteered annually was 2.78. Forty-three percent of the volunteers volunteered for three or more jobs, thus categorizing them as multiple volunteers. The average number of hours spent per job was 22.5.

Using the Pearson correlation coefficient it was determined that there was a significant relationship between the average number of hours spent per job and the number of jobs volunteered ($r=.38$ significant at .0002).

IMPLICATIONS

The adult volunteers in the sample volunteered an average of 73.6 hours annually. Since there were 9191 persons in the total population over the age of 18, and half of the sample were found to be volunteer, the monetary value of volunteers to that particular population is tremendous. Given that the minimum wage is \$3.35 per hour, the total worth of volunteer services in that community population for twelve months was \$1,133,482.10. This proves that the monetary worth of volunteers is important. Realistically, this estimate is most likely under the actual worth of volunteer services. Were they actually paid for their services they would probably have been paid more than the minimum wage given their ages and experiences.

Although interpretation of these results are inherently limited to the population in which they came, they do have relevance to other populations as well. Extension and other organizations that use volunteers extensively should put more emphasis on the monetary value of their volunteers. This is an excellent way to help any program to be accountable for itself. Saving vast amounts of money by using volunteers carries much leverage when accounting for a program of any size.

Given the results of this study, organizations such as extension should adapt their programs to allow for maximum volunteer participation. Most persons reported they volunteered on weekdays but preferred to volunteer on weekends. This indicates that most programs using volunteers were on the weekdays. If organizations that are really sensitive to the needs of their volunteer clientele were to change many of their programs to the weekends then it would be possible to involve more volunteers in them.

These results could also be instrumental in the manner you recruit volunteers. If an organization could gain computer access to data on populations, like many marketing firms have, it would then be possible to find the addresses of those persons who have the characteristics that closely resemble the typical volunteer found in this study. In this way recruiting could be done in a fraction of the time it would normally take.

This study found that persons who volunteer in multiple activities tended to devote more time to each activity. This implies that one of the best persons to get involved in voluntary activities is someone who is currently involved in another. Thus it is possible to recruit good working volunteers from other organizations that use volunteers. These people seem more likely to volunteer again for some other activity. Reddy and Smith (1973: 23) said that persons who are busy and involved in one aspect of social activity tend to be busy and involved in other activities. Thus, recruiting of volunteers could possibly be done in the bowling alleys, fraternal organizations, adult education classes and other leisure activities and organizations.

Of course other implications can be made concerning programming for the adult volunteer. Training programs for potential volunteers would be affected for example. Since persons reported they preferred to volunteer in the spring and summer, on weekends in the afternoon, it would be reasonable to assume that these are also the times when they would more likely be available to attend training programs. Thus, plans should be made to hold training sessions for volunteers during these times.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This was an exploratory study done to identify the demographic characteristics of volunteers in the population. The findings are very informative yet inherently limited to the population studies. Thus, these recommendations are made for future research:

1. Similar studies should be done at the county, state and national levels to determine the characteristics of volunteers in each of these areas for more valid generalizations.
2. Studies should be done to find the characteristics of volunteers that work for specific types of organizations.
3. A longitudinal study should be done to trace the volunteering activities of volunteers over a period of several years.
4. A longitudinal study should be done to trace volunteering activities of volunteers through their retirement years.

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THE EFFECTS OF TRAINING ON SELECTED ATTITUDE
CHANGES IN LOW INCOME ADULTS

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Abstract

This study explores changes in selected attitudes in low income adults associated with participation in certain Extension training programs. The influences of demographic variables on the significant changes in attitude were also studied. Participants in the study included 126 residents of public housing projects in North Carolina. Findings indicated that participation in the training was associated with attitude changes in mental health status, attitude toward 4-H, and attitude toward Agricultural Extension and that certain demographic variables seem to influence these changes.

There is general agreement in the literature that attitudes change. However, Krathwohl, et al., (1964) note the assumption that attitudes and other affective behaviors develop slowly and are not easily changed. On the other hand, they argue that it is just as logical to assume that attitudes could undergo change within a very short time. Gagne' (1977, p. 242) summarizes much of the literature on attitude change. He reports that attitudes are learned via interaction with others. He purports that attitudes may be learned or altered suddenly as a result of one experience, or change may occur as a result of numerous experiences over a long time span. A humanistic perspective toward attitude change is represented by Rogers (1951, 1977) and Maslow (1954, 1968, 1970). Both stress the actualizing tendency as a motivating force that fosters change in the individual. Rogers points out the similarities between education and therapy, indicating that both should be carried out in a relaxed and supportive atmosphere. He asserts that when threat is minimal, the self is free to change and grow. Maslow reports that all persons possess some degree of a driving force toward self esteem enhancement and self actualization. Thus, it is proposed that successful efforts in meeting self esteem and self actualization needs result in positive changes in attitudes, particularly those related to self. Fitts (1965, 1970, 1972) stresses the idea of changing self-concept through interpersonal relationships. He suggests that training programs that give attention to improving interpersonal competence can also increase competence in other areas and result in positive changes in attitude.

The assumption that attitudes can be changed through Extension educational training is central to this study. The influences of two Extension training programs were examined. These were the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Programs (EFNEP) and the orientation training program for low income adult 4-H volunteers. The purpose of EFNEP is to improve diets and health for the total family by increasing knowledge, skills and managerial abilities related to a broad area of food and nutrition. The orientation training program for low income 4-H volunteers was designed to develop the following competencies: understanding youth, communicating effectively, assessing needs, planning, implementing, evaluating, and possessing knowledge of the 4-H organizational framework. In this study, training in both programs was conducted by trained paraprofessionals who worked with the participants on a one-to-one basis or in small groups. The training took place mainly in the homes of the participants.

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The humanistic perspective of motivation and attitude change undergirds this study. The basic notion is that low income adults engage voluntarily in an Extension program in order to satisfy basic needs. Using Maslow's hierarchy of needs, it is assumed that physiological needs compose the lower level of the hierarchy and safety needs, social needs, and psychological needs such as love, self-esteem and self actualization are arranged in order upward to the top level. Progress toward self actualization is offered as an explanation for changing individual attitudes toward self and the environment. This can result from successful participation in Extension training programs. Emphasis on interpersonal communications, presenting new information, positive feedback, reinforcement, and practicing new behaviors are phenomena described in the literature as strategies for inducing attitude change. These strategies are basic to the Extension educational training associated with EFNEP and to the low income volunteer orientation training.

Participants in the study included 126 low income adults who were residents of housing projects in three North Carolina counties. A quasi-experimental design was used with two groups being established. A program group consisted of 94 adults, and a quasi-control group consisted of 32 individuals. Within the program group 52 individuals received experimental treatment consisting of six lessons from the 4-H volunteer orientation training series. The remaining 44 individuals received the standard prescribed series of EFNEP lessons. Treatment extended over three to five months and data were collected by paraprofessional members of the county Extension staffs.

METHOD

A quasi-experimental research design was used to investigate changes in self concept, mental health status, community adaptation, anomie, present/future value orientation, attitude toward 4-H, attitude toward volunteering, and attitude toward Agricultural Extension. A questionnaire was formulated from previously developed measures of social-psychological attitudes. These included: The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964), The Health Opinion Survey (Leighton, 1969), The Community Adaptation Schedule (Roen and Burnes, 1968), Anomie (Scole, 1956), Present/Future Value Orientation (Rosen, 1956), and The Semantic Differential (Osgood *et al.*, 1957). The research instruments included three pretest and post test booklets. The same booklets were used for pretests and for post tests. Differences between pretest and post test mean scores were used to establish the attitude changes. Data were collected by paraprofessionals through pretest/post test both in one-on-one sessions and in small groups. The difference in pretest and post test mean scores was defined as attitude change. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. Frequency distributions using the independent variables and selected demographics were calculated to describe the population. Characteristics investigated were age, educational level, race, residential mobility, income, employment status and organizational involvement. A two-tailed t-test was used to determine the significance of the difference between the pretest mean and the post test mean scores. For attitudes in which significant changes were noted, demographic characteristics were specified to determine the possibility that these characteristics may have exerted influence on the attitude changes. Again the t-test was used to determine whether or not attitude changes remain statistically significant upon specification. The t-test was also used to detect significant differences between the program group and the quasi-control group (before and after treatment) and to detect any significant differences between the EFNEP group and the 4-H volunteer training group.

FINDINGS

Participants in the study ranged in age from 18 to 73 with a mean age of 37.8 years. Participants were approximately 70 percent black and 30 percent white with a mean educational level of 9.7 years. The overwhelming majority were female with only two out of 126 being male. The typical resident lived in a household of four with two of these being children under 18. The participant was probably unemployed but considered her occupation

to be either homemaker or service worker. Monthly family income averaged between \$400 and \$599. The typical individual was not socially active and had not participated in volunteer activities. On the other hand, she willingly agreed to take part in this study when asked. Findings indicated that participants in both the EFNEP and the 4-H adult volunteer training showed significant differences in pretest and post test mean scores for the following attitudes: mental health status, 4-H concept and Agricultural Extension concept. The t-test also showed significant differences in the quasi-control group for mental health status and 4-H concept. A comparison of the EFNEP group with 4-H adult volunteer training group showed no significant differences between participants in the two programs. For all tests the significance level was set at the .05 level.

In summary, findings indicated that participation in the EFNEP or the 4-H training was associated with significant attitude changes in mental health status, 4-H concept, and Agricultural Extension concept. It was found that residential mobility and organizational involvement seemed to influence these significant attitude changes. In addition age and income seemed to influence changes in attitude toward 4-H and toward Agricultural Extension. Finally, educational level seemed to influence attitude change toward Agricultural Extension. Participants 34 years old or under with 10 or more years of education were more likely to show attitude change while those older or with less education were not. With regard to residential mobility, the less mobile group was likely to show change. The higher level income group was more likely to change, as was the group with less involvement in organizations.

Thus it was concluded that for certain attitudes, significant attitude changes are associated with participation in Extension educational training. It was further concluded that significant attitude changes seem to be influenced by certain demographics. Finally, it was concluded that attitude changes can take place in less than a three to five month period.

IMPLICATIONS

The implication that attitude changes occur as a result of the impact of educational programs is supported by this study. The study also demonstrates that measures within the affective domain can be practically administered and that data can be readily collected. The fact that mental health status was significantly influenced by participation in educational programs offers support for Rogers' (1951) suggestion that education is like therapy. Thus, when designing adult education programs, educators need to consider the therapeutic aspect of participation. Change in mental health status could be emphasized as a benefit that results from participation in adult educational experiences. The fact that both the EFNEP and the 4-H training models called for considerable interaction between the teacher and the learner supports Fitts' (1970) proposition that attitude changes occur as a result of human interaction. This may also explain the changes in attitude that occurred in the quasi-control group. The inference can be made that the considerable interaction between the paraprofessionals and the participants that occurred during the administration of the pretest and the post test influenced attitude changes in both the quasi-control group and the program group. The pretest/post test could be viewed as an experience in evaluation that involved considerable human interaction. If the process of pretesting or post testing influenced attitude changes, implications can be made that evaluation can be a learning experience. Accordingly the educational impact of evaluation procedures should be considered relevant to the development of educational programs. One could argue that significant changes in both the control group and the program group were caused by the testing or by environmental factors rather than the training program. The total results, however, imply otherwise. All attitude variables that changed significantly in the program group did not show significant changes in the control group. Therefore, one can surmise that the treatment did indeed exert an influence on attitude change in the program group.

Much of the literature reports that low income adults are not likely to be involved in volunteer activity. It has been frequently reported that when low income adults do

volunteer, they are likely to have short tenure in the program. Data collected in this study show that a high percentage of the low income adults participating had no previous volunteer activity. Nevertheless these adults readily volunteered for EFNEP or they agreed to serve as 4-H adult volunteers when they were asked. This implies that it has been a matter of insufficient opportunities and not a negative attitude that has limited volunteering in the low income community. The fact that few of the volunteers dropped out of the study also implies that expected tenure for these adults can be equal to that of higher income groups. Literature on volunteer development and training frequently refers to the resistance of volunteers to participating in training. However, the 94 volunteers in this study remained involved in training for three to five months. This suggests that training which is producing positive attitude changes is readily accepted by low income participants. Thus, if the training is effective and appropriate, it meets volunteer needs and influences the volunteer to continue in the program. Finally, an overriding inference of this study is that the basic needs and motivating forces influencing the low income volunteer are similar to those needs and motivating forces influencing the behavior of volunteers from higher income levels.

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